Noun and Verb Codes in English Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners: A Study of Usefulness in the Polish Context

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ABSTRACT. Anna Dziemianko. *Noun and Verb Codes in English Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners: A Study of Usefulness in the Polish Context.* [Kody rzeczownikowe i czasownikowe w angielskich jednojęzycznych słownikach pedagogicznych: Studium użyteczności dla Polaków]. Adam Mickiewicz University Press. Poznań 2012. Pp. 496. Tabs 103. Figs 63. Seria Filologia Angielska nr 36. ISBN 978-83-232-2444-0. ISSN 0554-8144. Text in English with a summary in Polish.

The book is devoted to noun and verb coding systems in monolingual dictionaries for foreign learners of English. It opens with an overview of noun and verb codes in learners' dictionaries published in the years 1938–2010. Tracing the evolution of coding systems for the two parts of speech throughout the history of English pedagogical lexicography leads to the identification of two approaches to coding the syntax of nouns and verbs. Mainstream and alternative coding systems are distinguished, and it is they that inspired the empirical study presented in the next part of the book. Around 900 native speakers of Polish took part in the experiment conducted to assess the usefulness of the identified systems of codes. Besides the subjects' proficiency in English, the following variables were included: degree of syntactic congruence between English and Polish lexical items, presence of codes, form of codes and part of speech. The participants were given a test in which they had to complete partial English translations of 12 Polish sentences using specific nouns and verbs in appropriate syntactic constructions. The nouns and verbs were headwords of dictionary entries compiled for the purpose of the study and manipulated accordingly. The obtained results make it possible to judge whether syntactic codes in learners' dictionaries are necessary, how their user-friendliness is affected by the selected variables and whether the global character of pedagogical dictionaries of English should be changed, considering syntactic anisomorphism between English and users' native language. Apart from codes, attention is paid to examples, the other vehicle for syntactic information in the supplied entries.

KEY WORDS: codes, nouns, verbs, dictionaries, use, syntax

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Table of contents

Acknowledgements 11
List of Tables 13
List of Figures 19

Chapter One: Theoretical and Practical Considerations 23
1.1. Introduction 23
1.2. The rise of pedagogical dictionaries and coding systems 28
1.3. Further developments 36
1.4. Codes in dictionaries – a metalexicographic analysis 48
1.4.1. Preliminary remarks 48
1.4.2. Adequacy of codes and examples 59
1.4.2.1. Evaluating codes and examples 59
1.4.2.2. A quantitative analysis 66
1.4.3. Form of codes – a qualitative analysis 75
1.4.3.1. Verb codes 75
1.4.3.1.1. Neither transparent nor mnemonic 77
1.4.3.1.2. Mnemonic 87
1.4.3.1.3. Transparent 101
1.4.3.1.3.1. Functional-formal 101
1.4.3.1.3.2. Formal 127
1.4.3.1.4. Pattern illustrations and verb frames 141
1.4.3.1.5. Conclusions 152
1.4.3.2. Noun codes 156
1.4.3.2.1. (Un)countable 162
1.4.3.2.2. (Un)countable and collective 171
1.4.3.2.3. (Un)countable and verb concord representation 178
1.4.3.2.4. (Un)countable, reclassifiable and verb concord representation 188
1.4.3.2.5. (Un)countable, reclassifiable and collective 195
1.4.3.2.6. Conclusions 202
1.4.4. Types of coding systems – an attempt at systematization 207
1.5. Review of previous research and hypotheses 211

Chapter Two: Experimental Design 219
2.1. Materials 219
2.1.1. Questionnaires 219

2.1.2. The test 221
2.1.2.1. Design overview 221
2.1.2.2. Lexical items, the translation task and codes – an outline 224
2.1.2.3. Congruence 253
2.1.2.3.1. Nouns 253
2.1.2.3.1.1. Reclassifiable nouns 253
2.1.2.3.1.1.1. Reclassification and the English article system 253
2.1.2.3.1.1.2. Reclassification in Polish and the translation task 260
2.1.2.3.1.2. Collective nouns 264
2.1.2.3.1.2.1. Collective nouns in English 264
2.1.2.3.1.2.2. Collective nouns in Polish and the translation task 266
2.1.2.3.2. Verbs 274
2.1.2.3.2.1. PL– verbs 274
2.1.2.3.2.1.1. PL– verbs followed by the infinitive 275
2.1.2.3.2.1.1.1. *Petition (wnieść)* 275
2.1.2.3.2.1.1.2. *Presume, (przypuszczać), pronounce (uznać)* 277
2.1.2.3.2.1.2. PL– verbs followed by *-ing* 281
2.1.2.3.2.1.2.1. *Involve (wymagać), envisage (przewidywać)* 281
2.1.2.3.2.1.2.2. *Admit (przyznać)* 284
2.1.2.3.2.2. PL+ verbs 286
2.1.2.4. Dictionary entries 288
2.1.2.4.1. An overview 288
2.1.2.4.2. Definitions 288
2.1.2.4.2.1. Nouns 289
2.1.2.4.2.2. Verbs 292
2.1.2.4.3. Codes 295
2.1.2.4.3.1. Nouns 295
2.1.2.4.3.2. Verbs 297
2.1.2.4.4. Examples 300
2.2. Procedures and data organization 302
2.2.1. Data collection 302
2.2.2. Data rostering 304
2.3. Subjects 305

2.3.1. Introduction 305
2.3.2. Subjects' profile 307
2.3.2.1. Gender 307
2.3.2.2. Use of symbol description 308
2.3.2.3. Situational contexts of dictionary use 313
2.3.2.3.1. An overview 313
2.3.2.3.2. Advanced subjects 314
2.3.2.3.3. Intermediate subjects 319
2.3.2.3.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 323
2.3.2.4. Dictionary consultation and parts of speech 325
2.3.2.4.1. An overview 325
2.3.2.4.2. Advanced subjects 327
2.3.2.4.3. Intermediate subjects 330
2.3.2.4.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 333
2.3.2.5. Other reference needs and success in dictionary consultation 336
2.3.2.5.1. An overview 336
2.3.2.5.2. Advanced subjects 338
2.3.2.5.2.1. Preliminaries 338
2.3.2.5.2.2. Reference needs 341
2.3.2.5.2.3. Success in dictionary consultation 344
2.3.2.5.2.4. Reference needs and their fulfillment 347
2.3.2.5.2.5. Reference needs concerning syntax and their fulfillment across the experimental conditions 349
2.3.2.5.3. Intermediate subjects 350
2.3.2.5.3.1. Preliminaries 350
2.3.2.5.3.2. Reference needs 352
2.3.2.5.3.3. Success in dictionary consultation 355
2.3.2.5.3.4. Reference needs and their fulfillment 358
2.3.2.5.3.5. Reference needs concerning syntax and their fulfillment across the experimental conditions 359
2.3.2.5.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 360
2.3.2.6. Familiarity with symbol description in dictionaries 364
2.3.2.7. Dictionary awareness 367
2.3.3. Concluding remarks 371

Chapter Three: Results 373
3.1. Answer analysis 373
3.1.1. Introduction 373

3.1.2. Correct answers 374
3.1.2.1. Advanced students 374
3.1.2.2. Intermediate students 379
3.1.2.3. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 384
3.1.3. Wrong answers: PL– items 386
3.1.3.1. Preliminaries 386
3.1.3.2. Advanced students 390
3.1.3.2.1. 6PL– nouns 390
3.1.3.2.2. 6PL– verbs 392
3.1.3.3. Intermediate students 393
3.1.3.3.1. 6PL– nouns 393
3.1.3.3.2. 6PL– verbs 395
3.1.3.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 397
3.1.3.4.1. 6PL– nouns 397
3.1.3.4.2. 6PL– verbs 400
3.2. Dictionary consultation and correct answers 402
3.2.1. Introduction 402
3.2.2. Correct answers without dictionary support 403
3.2.2.1. Advanced students 403
3.2.2.2. Intermediate students 407
3.2.2.3. Advanced and intermediate levels compared 409
3.2.3. Correct answers with dictionary support 412
3.2.3.1. Concurrent selection of sources of syntactic information 412
3.2.3.1.1. Advanced students 412
3.2.3.1.2. Intermediate students 414
3.2.3.2. Independent selection of sources of syntactic information 416
3.2.3.2.1. Preliminaries 416
3.2.3.2.1.1. Advanced students 416
3.2.3.2.1.2. Intermediate students 418
3.2.3.2.2. ANOVAs 420
3.2.3.2.2.1. Preliminaries 420
3.2.3.2.2.2. Codes 421
3.2.3.2.2.3. Examples 428
3.2.4. Conclusions 435
3.2.5. Discussion 440

Dictionaries 447
References 451
Appendix A 469
Appendix B 487
Noun and Verb Codes in English Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners: A Study of Usefulness in the Polish Context
Streszczenie 493

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List of Tables

Table 1. Major monolingual English learners' dictionaries 1938-2010 37
Table 2. Nouns used in the analysis of coding systems 49
Table 3. Verbs used in the analysis of coding systems 53
Table 4. Relevant codes and examples in the samples 66
Table 5. Relevant codes and examples by noun category 71
Table 6. Relevant codes and examples by verb category 73
Table 7. Types of verb coding systems in pedagogical lexicography (1938-2010) 76
Table 8. Opaque verb coding systems: GEW and OALDCE1-3 ... 77
Table 9. Mnemonic verb coding systems: LDOCE1 and OALDCE4 88
Table 10. Transparent functional-formal verb coding systems: LDOCE2, COBUILD1, CIDE and CALD1-3 103
Table 11. Transparent formal verb coding systems: COBUILD2-6 and OALDCE5-7 128
Table 12. Pattern illustrations and verb frames: LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2 and OALDCE8 142
Table 13. Types of verb coding system: A generalization 156
Table 14. Noun codes for (un)countable nouns: GEW, OALDCE1-3, MEDAL1-2 163
Table 15. Noun codes for (un)countable and collective nouns: LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5, CALD1-2 171
Table 16. Codes for (un)countable nouns and subject-verb concord representation: LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-7, CIDE and CALD3 179
Table 17. Codes for (un)countable nouns, reclassifiable nouns and subject-verb concord representation: COBUILD1 and COBUILD6 188
Table 18. Codes for (un)countable, reclassifiable and collective nouns: COBUILD2-5 196
Table 19. Interdependencies between codes for reclassifiable and collective nouns 204
Table 20. Types of noun coding system: A generalization 206
Table 21. Mainstream and alternative noun and verb codes: A summary 207
Table 22. Usefulness of codes: Aspects and hypotheses 218
Table 23. Nouns and noun codes in the study 226

Table 24. Verbs and verb codes in the study 226
Table 25. Test components: Nouns 229
Table 26. Test components: Verbs 241
Table 27. Codes for collective nouns in the study 296
Table 28. Codes for reclassifiable nouns in the study 296
Table 29. Symbols in mainstream and alternative verb codes in the study 298
Table 30. Distribution of useful codes and examples in verb entries 299
Table 31. Subjects by years of study (AS) and proficiency levels (IS) 306
Table 32. Distribution of test versions across the subjects at two proficiency levels 307
Table 33. Distribution of test versions across the subjects: Women and men 308
Table 34. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes 309
Table 35. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes across proficiency levels 311
Table 36. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context 313
Table 37. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS) 314
Table 38. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): Crosstabulation 316
Table 39. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS) 319
Table 40. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): Crosstabulation 320
Table 41. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context and proficiency level 324
Table 42. Reference to dictionaries and success in dictionary consultation: Nouns and verbs 326
Table 43. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (AS) 327
Table 44. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (AS): Crosstabulation 328
Table 45. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (IS) 330
Table 46. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (IS): Crosstabulation 331

Table 47. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech and proficiency level 333
Table 48. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS 339
Table 49. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The AS ... 341
Table 50. Correlation between consultation success rates: The AS 345
Table 51. Correlation between look-up frequencies and success rates: The AS 348
Table 52. The AS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E by test version 349
Table 53. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The IS 350
Table 54. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The IS 352
Table 55. Correlation between consultation success rates: The IS 355
Table 56. Correlation between look-up frequencies and success rates: The IS 358
Table 57. The IS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E by test version 359
Table 58. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS and the IS 360
Table 59. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries by experimental conditions 365
Table 60. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: The AS and the IS compared 366
Table 61. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A quantitative approach 367
Table 62. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A qualitative approach 370
Table 63. Performance in the translation task: The AS 375
Table 64. The role of codes and POS in the AS' performance in the translation task (CAD) 378
Table 65. Performance in the translation task: The IS 380
Table 66. The role of codes and POS in the IS' performance in the translation task (CAD) 383
Table 67. Dictionary-based correct translations (CAD) in both proficiency groups 384
Table 68. Examples of wrong translations with PL– verbs 389
Table 69. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The AS 391
Table 70. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS 392

Table 71. The influence of codes on incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS 393
Table 72. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The IS 394
Table 73. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS 395
Table 74. The influence of codes on incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS 397
Table 75. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns across proficiency levels 397
Table 76. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs across proficiency levels 400
Table 77. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The AS 405
Table 78. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The IS 407
Table 79. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use across proficiency levels 409
Table 80. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The AS (concurrent selection of sources) 413
Table 81. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The IS (concurrent selection of sources) 414
Table 82. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the AS 417
Table 83. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the IS 418
Table 84. Reference to codes – a summary of ANOVA 422
Table 85. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*POS*CODES 423
Table 86. The Tukey HSD test for POS*CODES 424
Table 87. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*CODES 426
Table 88. The Tukey HSD test for CODES and LEVEL 428
Table 89. Reference to examples – a summary of ANOVA 428
Table 90. The Tukey HSD test for CONGR.*LEVEL*POS (examples) 430
Table 91. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*POS*CODES (examples) 432
Table 92. The Tukey HSD test for POS*CODES (examples) 433
Table 93. The Tukey HSD test for CODES, POS and LEVEL (examples) 435
Table 94. The user-friendliness of codes: A summary 436
Table 95. The user-friendliness of examples: A summary 438

Table B.1. Distribution of test versions by gender: Expected frequencies and deviances 487
Table B.2. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes: Expected frequencies and deviances 487
Table B.3. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context: Expected frequencies and deviances 488
Table B.4. Reference to dictionaries and success in dictionary consultation: Nouns and verbs (expected frequencies and deviances) 489
Table B.5. The AS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E: Expected frequencies and deviances 490
Table B.6. The IS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E: Expected frequencies and deviances 490
Table B.7. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: Expected frequencies and deviances 491
Table B.8. Reference to relevant codes and examples: Proportions (in italics) and mean proportions used in the ANOVAs 491

List of Figures

Figure 1. Relevant codes in the samples 68
Figure 2. Proportions of examples illustrating relevant codes in the samples 70
Figure 3. Relevant codes and examples by noun category 72
Figure 4. Relevant codes and examples by verb category 73
Figure 5. Evolution of verb coding systems 154
Figure 6. Evolution of noun coding systems 205
Figure 7. Test versions 223
Figure 8. Articles versus familiarity and countability 257
Figure 9. Articles and their kinetic values 258
Figure 10. Articles and their kinetic values: A linear approach 259
Figure 11. Deep structure 279
Figure 12. Sentence brackets erasure and Comp1 insertion in English 280
Figure 13. Comp2 insertion in Polish 280
Figure 14. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes (percentages) 310
Figure 15. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes across proficiency levels 312
Figure 16. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS) 315
Figure 17. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): At home x In class (categorized histogram) 317
Figure 18. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): In class x At home (categorized histogram) 318
Figure 19. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS) 319
Figure 20. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): At home x In class (categorized histogram) 321
Figure 21. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): In class x At home (categorized histogram) 322
Figure 22. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context and proficiency level 324

Figure 23. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (AS) 327
Figure 24. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (AS): Reference x Success (categorized histogram) 329
Figure 25. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (IS) 330
Figure 26. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (IS): Reference x Success (categorized histogram) 332
Figure 27. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech and proficiency level 334
Figure 28. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS (indices) 340
Figure 29. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The AS 342
Figure 30. Dictionary users' needs in clusters: The AS 343
Figure 31. Correlation between consultation success rates: The AS 345
Figure 32. The AS' search effects in clusters 346
Figure 33. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The IS (indices) 351
Figure 34. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The IS 353
Figure 35. Dictionary users' needs in clusters: The IS 354
Figure 36. Correlation between consultation success rates: The IS .. 356
Figure 37. The IS' search effects in clusters 357
Figure 38. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS and the IS 361
Figure 39. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: The AS and the IS compared 366
Figure 40. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A quantitative approach 368
Figure 41. Performance in the translation task: The AS 376
Figure 42. Performance in the translation task: The IS 381
Figure 43. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The AS 391
Figure 44. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS 392
Figure 45. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The IS 394
Figure 46. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS 396
Figure 47. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns across proficiency levels 398
Figure 48. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs across proficiency levels 401
Figure 49. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The AS 406

Figure 50. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The IS 408
Figure 51. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use across proficiency levels 410
Figure 52. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The AS (concurrent selection of sources) 413
Figure 53. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The IS (concurrent selection of sources) 415
Figure 54. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the AS 417
Figure 55. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the IS 419
Figure 56. Interaction of LEVEL*POS*CODES 423
Figure 57. Interaction of POS*CODES 425
Figure 58. Interaction of LEVEL*CODES 426
Figure 59. Main effects: CODES and LEVEL 427
Figure 60. Interaction of CONGR.*LEVEL*POS (examples) 429
Figure 61. Interaction of LEVEL*POS*CODES (examples) 431
Figure 62. Interaction of POS*CODES (examples) 433
Figure 63. Main effects: CODES, POS and LEVEL (examples) 434

Chapter One

Theoretical and Practical Considerations

1.1. Introduction

Monolingual dictionaries for foreign learners of English (henceforth learners' dictionaries or pedagogical dictionaries) have been in existence for over 70 years now, and they are considered unlikely to be completely supplanted by other reference materials in the foreseeable future. Quite the opposite, they are said to be models *par excellence* for advanced foreign learners (Cowie 1999a: 200). Today, pedagogical dictionaries constitute a vibrant and dynamic sector of lexicography, which they have also profoundly shaped. Since their rise in the mid-1930s, they have made seemingly rigid divisions dissolve: between academia and market forces, between lexicography, disciplines of linguistics and computer science, and even between different national traditions (Cowie 1990a: 689-690). Indeed, they "have played more than one vital role in the evolution of lexicography and dictionaries in the second half of the twentieth century" (Kernerman 2007: 139).

Pedagogical dictionaries have almost always tried to cater for English learners' encoding needs and help them produce correct utterances.[1] In fact, the significance of the genre is believed to consist in the recognition of learners' productive needs (Cowie 1990a: 685). It is common knowledge that the construction of well-formed sentences requires a good command of grammar, and in particular – syntax. No wonder, then, that the representation of the syntactic behavior of words has become a characteristic feature of pedagogical dictionaries (Stein 1989: 13).

Information on syntax in learners' dictionaries typically takes the form of codes, which are said to provide "a link between the broad generalities of grammar and the individualities of particular words" (Sinclair 1987b: 114). They serve as a space-saving device (Moon 2007: 174) and can "capture fine syntactic detail with great economy of means ... in a succinct yet informative way" (Cowie 1984: 155-156). Codes usually consist of one or a few letters, digits or abbreviations, sometimes accompanied by

[1] The few exceptions are mentioned in section 1.2.

longer labels. Today, as will be shown below, they are not as concise as in the early days of pedagogical lexicography; syntactic information is now often given "in a mixture of coded symbols and complete or abbreviated labels and formulations" (Béjoint 2010: 184). Consequently, it is impossible to separate codes in the strict sense of the word, typically visualized as sequences of short (alphanumeric) signs, from the less condensed constituents of the syntactic message with which they intertwine. Thus, quite a broad understanding of codes had to be adopted in their analysis.

The approach to presenting syntactic information in learners' dictionaries is pedagogical, not purely syntactic. It follows that codes are not regarded as a separate, self-standing vehicle for syntax. The need to supplement them with examples has been repeatedly stressed in the literature on the topic (Heath 1982: 98-99, Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 83, Aarts 1991a: 581, 1999: 22, Klotz 1999: 40). It was even claimed that codes could actually make entries reliable guides towards active use of headwords only in combination with extensive and consistently arranged exemplification (Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 106). Thus, while the present work focuses on syntactic codes, examples are taken into consideration as their supplement supposed to flesh out the (more or less abstract) coded information.

The study is concerned with coding systems for nouns and verbs in British pedagogical dictionaries of English. It has two aims, as indicated by its double title. On the one hand, an attempt is made to show how noun and verb codes developed in the history of British pedagogical lexicography. On the other, the study sets out to examine whether noun and verb codes are useful for Polish learners of English.

These aims determined the character of the book. To accomplish both goals, it was necessary to analyze coding systems for nouns and verbs in monolingual English learners' dictionaries as well as conduct an empirical investigation. The study is thus both metalexicographic and empirical. The metalexicographic part relies on an analysis of the following learners' dictionaries: *A Grammar of English Words* (1938), the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (editions 1-8; 1942, 1963, 1974, 1989, 1995, 2000, 2005, 2010), the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (editions 1-5; 1978, 1987, 1995, 2003, 2009), the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (1995), the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (editions 1-3; 2003, 2005, 2008), the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (editions 1 and 2; 2002 and 2007) as well as six editions of the dictionary for foreign learners of Eng-

lish based on the Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD) and published by Collins, even though under slightly different titles (1987, 1995, 2001, 2003, 2006, 2008).[2] Thus, all the editions of the major pedagogical dictionaries put out in the years 1938-2010 have been subjected to scrutiny. Only their paper versions are taken into consideration.[3]

Aside from the aforementioned primary sources, a number of secondary publications have been referred to. These include papers from proceedings of conferences on lexicography and linguistics as well as reviews and reports on empirical research published in scholarly journals. Besides, monographs devoted to the topic of grammar in dictionaries have been cited. In general, all the materials span the same period of time as the primary sources. However, as will become evident below, much more has been written on coding systems for verbs than nouns, which confirms Cowie's (1987: 183) observation that "few developments in monolingual EFL lexicography have aroused so much critical and speculative comment as the grammatical treatment of verbs". In view of the fact that noun coding systems have been researched nowhere near as extensively as verb codes, they are given priority in the present dissertation. Information concerning nouns is then usually presented before that which refers to verbs, as indicated in the title of the book.[4]

The empirical part of the dissertation relies on the results of the research designed to investigate the actual usefulness of noun and verb codes for Polish learners of English. In the present study, the usefulness of coded syntactic information is an umbrella term, under which are subsumed two points: the effect of the presence of codes in the microstructure on learners' performance in a production task – on the one hand, and the user-friendliness of codes – on the other. First, considering the fact

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[2] Details on the titles associated with the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* and COBUILD are given in sections 1.2 and 1.3, respectively.

[3] The eighth edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (2010) did not affect the design of the empirical research conducted to achieve one of the aims defied above, since the experiment had already been carried out by 2010. Nonetheless, the edition in question was examined in the metalexicographic part of the book to make the overview of coding systems as up-to-date as possible. For the sake of simplicity and stylistic appropriacy, in the metalexicographic analysis, *dictionary* and (much less often) *volume* are used interchangeably with *edition* when a bound book is meant.

[4] The discussion in section 1.4.3, where verb codes are analyzed before noun codes, is the only exception in this regard, justified below.

that codes convey syntactic information, they can seriously affect learners' success in language production. Importantly, the influence does not have to concern the consultation of codes, but merely the presence of (various types of) coded information in the microstructure. The role is worth investigating in view of limited methods of analyzing the actual decisions made by dictionary users. Unless advanced techniques of looking into the process of dictionary consultation, such as eye tracking, are employed, results from experimental studies, however tightly controlled, can only approximate reality. Even in the situation where dictionary users are explicitly requested to inform researchers which source of information in the entry they draw on, for example by underlining it, the obtained results might not be completely accurate.[5] Thus, it might be worth seeing whether the mere presence of (certain types of) codes in the microstructure affects encoding, without paying heed to the specific sources of information which were actually referred to in the consulted entries.[6]

The other aspect of the usefulness of coded syntactic information in this book concerns its user-friendliness. The definition of user-friendliness of syntactic information proposed by Dziemianko (2006: 5-8) is followed below. In general, a source of syntactic information is user-friendly if it helps dictionary users achieve their purpose and, on top of that, is consulted very often. In an encoding task, the user-friendliness of sources of syntactic information is then reflected in the frequency with which they are consulted, once the information they furnish has resulted in correct language production. It follows that successful linguistic performance on their basis is a necessary, although not yet sufficient condition for their user-friendliness; they should also attract users' attention very often. In short, then, to assess the user-friendliness of sources of syntactic information, it is necessary to measure the frequency with which they are referred to, provided that the information they furnish has been correctly used.

The metalexicographic considerations and the discussion of the empirical study have been organized into three chapters. Chapter one presents the genesis of the English pedagogical dictionary and the rationale behind the use of syntactic codes. It also offers a short overview of the main developments in the 20th-century lexicography which have affected

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[5] The issue resurfaces in section 1.5.

[6] It should nonetheless be ascertained that the analyzed language production was dictionary-assisted, and was not a product of guesswork or chance.

the genre. In particular, attention is paid to the international character of pedagogical dictionaries and some suggestions for making them population-specific. However, the main body of the chapter is devoted to a qualitative analysis of verb and noun coding systems, in this order, developed in the over 70-year history of pedagogical lexicography. Exceptionally, verb codes, which were consistently employed in learners' dictionaries before noun codes, are discussed first. The sequence of presenting information in the qualitative analysis of codes may be seen as a chronologically justified departure from the general principle applied below whereby information on the less known, that is noun coding systems, comes first. In the analysis, an effort is made to arrange the coding systems for each part of speech into categories. In the case of verb codes, published proposals for their classification could be drawn on. The task was more challenging for noun codes inasmuch as no previous attempts at their systematization could be traced in the literature on the topic.

The metalexicographic analysis of coding systems in chapter one is based on codes for the samples of verbs and nouns selected from *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* by Quirk et al. (1985), the first large-scale modern grammar of English (Aarts 2004a: 365).[7] Sinclair (1987: 113) rightly observes that the well-known grammar, despite its authority, did not solve the problem of terminology in grammars, far less the problem of grammar in dictionaries. Thus, any moot points concerning terminology which are significant for the coding systems are acknowledged and explained. The analysis leads to the identification of two approaches to coding information on verbs and nouns in dictionaries designed for foreign learners. The chapter ends with an overview of the findings from the pertinent research reported in the literature on the subject and the formulation of the hypotheses tested in the experiment.

The remaining chapters of the book are empirical in character. Chapter two presents the materials used in the experiment. Emphasis is placed on the test essential to achieve the aims of the research, which was to assess the usefulness of the coding systems identified in chapter one and verify the hypotheses. Thus, after a brief introduction to the experimental de-

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[7] As a matter of fact, it was preceded by *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972), also by Quirk et al., but the 1985 publication is much more comprehensive. Aarts (2004a: 365) notes that a major competitor to the monumental volume, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* by Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey Pullum (2002), appeared as many as 17 years later.

sign, test components are analyzed in detail. Then, the subjects involved in the study are profiled. Their proficiency in English, dictionary using habits as well as reference skills and needs are discussed on the basis of the information obtained from the questionnaire accompanying the test.

The results yielded by the experiment are presented in chapter three. First, the answers supplied by the subjects in the test are examined. Then, the factors which determined the frequency of reference to specific sources of syntactic information are analyzed in detail. While coded syntactic information remains the focal point of the book, attention is also paid to examples, inextricably linked with codes. The analysis is not limited to testing the hypotheses formulated in chapter one; some other relationships are additionally exposed. Finally, the obtained results are discussed in the context of other findings presented in the literature on the topic and directions of further research are suggested.

1.2. The rise of pedagogical dictionaries and coding systems

Monolingual English learners' dictionaries came into existence in the mid 1930s in the Far East. By the early 1940s, they had taken on the characteristics recognizable today (Cowie 1999b: 3). Their rise took place under exceptionally favorable conditions, since Harold E. Palmer, Albert S. Hornby and Michael West, the founding fathers of pedagogical lexicography, taught English to foreign students: Palmer and Hornby – in Japan, and West – in India (Jackson 2002: 129). Besides, they were actively involved in fruitful programs of lexical research. One of such programs, the vocabulary control movement of the 1920s and 1930s, had the deepest influence on the early history of the monolingual dictionary of English for foreign students. In fact, it is the research into vocabulary limitation that gave birth to the learners' dictionary (Cowie 1998a: 255).

Interest in vocabulary restriction grew out of the need to ease the learning burden on foreign students of English by exposing them, at least at first, to the words which carry the main weight of everyday communication (Cowie 1999b: 4). Vocabulary limitation paved the way for simplified readers, prepared within the radius of a given vocabulary.[8] However,

[8] The underlying intention was to organize vocabulary acquisition in stages on the basis of English teachers' professional expertise. It was assumed that a competent teacher could determine the most important words. This subjective approach stands in stark contrast to the quantitative one adopted in the USA, where Thorndike also tried to

word lists were much more than alphabetical repositories of spelling forms selected on the basis of their importance; they were highly structured lexicons. A world list was an alphabetical arrangement of word families. It consisted of entries, each of which contained a root, inflected forms, derivatives and common compounds (Cowie 2009: 389). With the addition of phonetic transcription, sense divisions, examples (which served as models for sentence building) and collocations, the structured lexicons reached their most sophisticated level and, accidentally, supplied the essential framework of a dictionary (Cowie 1999b: 5).

While West, Palmer and Hornby were all actively involved in vocabulary control, it was West who made use of a limited vocabulary to frame definitions in *The New Method English Dictionary* (henceforth NMED), prepared in collaboration with James Endicott and considered the first monolingual English learners' dictionary (Cowie 1990a: 684).[9] The preface to NMED makes it clear that "[t]his English Dictionary is written especially for the foreigner. It explains to him, in words which he knows, the meaning of words and idioms which he does not know." (NMED: iv). In the dictionary, 1490 words were used to define around 24000 vocabulary items (NMED: iii). The question of syntax is, however, nonexistent there. NMED does not give part of speech labels for headwords, let alone verb complementation patterns or information on noun countability. Part of speech labels were also absent from the revised edition, published in 1965 as *An International Reader's Dictionary* (hereafter IRD1). It was only in the next, 1977 edition that they were added (IRD2: v). Also, tran-

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grade words in the learning process, with that he relied not on human experience and intuition, but on frequency counts in texts (Béjoint 2010: 163).

[9] Interestingly, Cowie (2009: 385) points out that in 1930, *An English Vocabulary for Foreign Students* by Simeon Potter was put out, which is "more interesting as a curiosity than as a serious contribution to the genre", the promising title notwithstanding. The dictionary, intended for beginners and readers, occasionally offered also French and German equivalents. Besides, as no attempt was made there to control the defining vocabulary, simple headwords were sometimes explained by means of more difficult words (Cowie 2009: 386). According to McArthur (1989: 53), in turn, the credit for the very first monolingual learners' dictionary must go to *A table alphabeticall* by Robert Cawdrey, a 2500-entry work of reference published in 1604 and "conteyning and teaching the true writing, and vnderstanding of hard vsuall English wordes borrowed from the Hebrew, Greeke, Latine, or French &c. With the interpretation thereof by plaine English wordes, gathered for the benefit & helpe of Ladies, Gentlewomen, or any other unskilfull persons".

sitive and intransitive verbs were marked accordingly, but if a verb is neither intransitive nor transitive, or if it can be both, it was marked simply [v] (IRD2: vii).

Simplified definitions help mainly with decoding. Palmer and Hornby, experienced teachers of English as a foreign language, realized that the learner's linguistic and communicative needs encompass more than just understanding the language being learnt. As Hornby (1956: v) puts it, "[a] knowledge of how to put words together is as important as, perhaps more important than, a knowledge of their meanings. The most important patterns are those for the verbs." Elsewhere he asserts that foreign learners of English "need to compose, not pull to pieces" (Hornby 1965: 108). By the same token, it became clear that dictionaries for native speakers were inadequate for foreign learners of English. After all, the traditional British dictionaries for Anglophones were designed to be used for reading literature. American ones, in turn, were compendiums of culture as a whole. The English learners' dictionary, by contrast, was to be a functional dictionary and a help in the acquisition of the foreign language (Béjoint 1994: 74). In other words, the native speakers' dictionary was meant as a reference device, while that for foreign learners – as a language learning tool (Rundell 1988: 133-134).

The experience of teaching English to foreign students in Japan made Palmer and Hornby aware of the fact that many errors result from extending the rules of sentence construction to the cases where they do not apply. After all, the language learner

> may suppose that because he has heard or seen 'I intend (want, propose) to come,' he may say or write 'I suggest to come'... Because 'He began talking about the weather' means about the same as 'He began to talk about the weather', the learner may suppose, wrongly of course, that 'He stopped talking about the weather' means the same as 'He stopped to talk about the weather' (Hornby 1956: v).[10]

Palmer and Hornby believed that the solution was to provide a full and clear account of the syntactic patterns in which words can function (Cowie 1990a: 686). Importantly, research into the syntax of verb patterns and noun phrases ran in parallel to the work on vocabulary control

[10] Error prevention in both reception and production is considered one of the main functions of general learners' dictionaries (Herbst 1999: 231).

(Cowie 2009: 389). It was the research into core vocabulary items, their patterns and uses that bore fruit in the form of dictionary information useful for language production.

Apart from NMED, the learners' dictionaries of the 1930s and 1940s are noteworthy as aids to encoding (Cowie 1999b: 12). The next two learners' dictionaries appeared in that period: Palmer's *Grammar of English Words* (hereafter GEW) in 1938, followed by the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* by Hornby, Gatenby and Wakefield in 1942 (henceforth OALDCE1). [11] At the practical level, both GEW and OALDCE1 laid stress on support for writers and translators. GEW, to which the aforementioned structured word lists had paved the way, is considered the pioneering encoding dictionary which affected the shape of OALDCE1 and helped to form its strongly productive character (Cowie 1999b: 3).

GEW deals with 1000 core vocabulary items.[12] The items were seen as those which present considerable difficulty to foreign students of English; "it is in connection with those 1000 words that the great majority of mis-

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[11] The *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* was first published in Tokyo by Kaitakusha. Shortly after its launch in Japan, it was brought to Britain to be taken over by a new department of Oxford University Press (Béjoint 1994: 66). Yet, the dictionary department of OUP was not "very enthusiastic about the apparent competitor to the *Concise Oxford*" (Brown 1978: ix). For this reason, the dictionary by Hornby et al. was transferred to the overseas educational department of OUP. Yet, the shortage of paper caused by World War II inhibited putting it out outside Japan. Reprinted photographically, it was published only in 1948 as *A Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. In 1952 it was retitled *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. This change was necessitated by the publication of two smaller dictionaries for learners in the earlier stages of study, i.e., *The Progressive English Dictionary* and *An English Reader's Dictionary*, both by Hornby and Parnwell. Nonetheless, both the Tokyo edition of the dictionary in question and its republished reprinting are usually referred to as the first edition (Cowie 1978: 139). The second edition was published in 1963 under the same title, *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, and it was only in the third one from 1974 that the word *Oxford* was added at the beginning of the title. For the sake of simplicity and consistency, the acronym OALDCE followed by a number indicative of the edition is used below for all editions of the dictionary under discussion.

[12] Hornby was the originator of the 1000 word list which provided much of the macrostructure of GEW (Cowie 1999b: 3). As Smith (1998: 283) explains, around 1930, Palmer commissioned Hornby to write simplified readers for relatively advanced users. In 1933, Hornby submitted a concrete proposal for a set of 1000 vocabulary items for the simplification of difficult texts.

takes in grammar and composition are made; it is these 1000 words that prevent the foreign students in the early stages from using English correctly and effectively" (GEW: iii). Palmer was convinced that the list contained precisely those words that even advanced-level students found difficult to use because of the multiple meanings, derivatives, compounds and idioms which they give rise to (GEW: iv). At about the same time, in 1934, he published a systematic treatment of construction patterns, a scheme which set out in an orderly way the principal types of verb complementation found in the simple sentence. The practical aim of his scheme became obvious four years later, when GEW was published. An updated version of the scheme was a central feature of this dictionary (Cowie 1990a: 686).

Verb patterns, which Palmer called construction formulae, were considered essential to the dictionary because they were expected to facilitate sentence building (Hornby 1965: 109, Cowie 1999a: 36). However, an obvious problem which emerged concerned the presentation of the patterns in a dictionary, which, ideally, should be pithily expressed. For this purpose, Palmer devised, and implemented in GEW, a method which consisted in setting out verb patterns with examples in the outside matter, assigning each pattern a code and inserting only the codes in verb entries as appropriate. Thus, information on verb patterns was coded in the entry, which ensured economy of presentation, while a full treatment of the patterns represented by codes was provided outside the word list. Such a solution supplied dictionary users "with a key to detailed information about specific verbs which took up little space in the entries themselves" (Cowie 1999a: 37).[13] It was also essential that the arrangement of patterns in the explanatory sections in the outside matter be systematic, so that dictionary users, through the perception of order, might be able to assimilate the whole detailed exposition and the series of patterns (Cowie 2009: 391). However, as will be shown in the next sections, there was no general consensus among lexicographers about the actual shape of this indis-

[13] In the introduction to GEW (vii), Palmer acknowledged that his dictionary was the first to offer codes "showing into which pattern or patterns various verbs may enter". Interestingly, as Zgusta (1989: 1) points out, the systematic information on syntactic patterns in which verbs occur was not a novelty in the lexicographic tradition outside the realm of English. He notes that already in the 19th century, Greek and Latin dictionaries indicated syntactic patterns of verbs. However, since Latin and Greek are inflected languages, the case which a verb governs was the most important feature of the patterns.

pensable arrangement. Nonetheless, the method of conveying information on verb syntax by means of codes, pioneered in pedagogical lexicography by Palmer's GEW, was later imitated, with various degrees of modification, in many subsequent dictionaries for foreign learners of English.

Both Palmer and Hornby realized that abstract codes can by no means supply all the information needed by the foreign learner for successful language production.[14] They realized that many word combinations which belong to the core vocabulary cannot be generated from scratch by foreign learners, hence their emphasis on phraseology. No wonder, then, that examples were seen as helpful not only in the explanation of meaning, but also in showing lexico-grammatical patterns (Cowie 1999b: 7). In GEW, some examples and restricted collocations were structurally simplified and reduced to skeletons, which indicated fixed, optional as well as substitutable elements in a sentence or phrase (Cowie 1999b: 8). Such skeleton-type examples were often expanded into full sentences. This way of exemplifying meaning and usage was found an effective way of showing the openness of grammatical patterns and the restrictedness of collocations (Cowie 2009: 397). Importantly, both example types often supplemented grammar codes, e.g.,

1. **discover**
   discover sg *See V.P. 4.*
   Columbus discovered America
   discover that *See V.P. 22.*
   We suddenly discovered that it was too late to catch the train.
   discover whether [how, what, which, *etc*.]. *See V.P. 26.*
   It was never discovered how he had died.

2. **hurt** …
   hurt sy. or sg. *See V.P. 4.*
   I won't hurt you.
   He hurt his back when he fell.[15]

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[14] Details on the form of codes in GEW are given in section 1.4.3.1.1.

[15] Cowie (2009: 397) rightly regrets that at least skeleton examples in GEW (here "discover sg", "discover that", "discover whether [how, what, which, *etc*.]" and "hurt sy or sg") were not italicized or otherwise highlighted. It is worth noting that such skeletons have their descendants in the form of pattern frames and pattern illustrations (Cowie

Syntactic information conveyed by means of codes features also in OALDCE1. In 1936, when the compilation of OALDCE1 was in progress, Palmer returned to England and the work was taken over by Hornby (Naganuma 1978: 11). Nonetheless, in the beginning, research into verb patterns was conducted by both Palmer and Hornby. This is what the latter says about this cooperation:

> [m]y work on Sentence Patterns began in the period between the two world wars when I was associated with Dr. H. E. Palmer in the work of the Institute for Research in English Teaching at the Department of Education in Tokyo. I owe much to Dr. Palmer's inspiring leadership during those years. We were not always in agreement and the verb patterns set out in … *An Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* … differ in some respects … from the patterns set out in Dr. Palmer's *A Grammar of English Words*. But although we could not always see eye to eye, my own work owes much to his initiative and enthusiasm (Hornby 1956: viii).[16]

After Palmer's departure, one of the areas which Hornby prioritized was research into construction patterns. He introduced changes into the patterns and arranged them in their final form, which appeared in OALDCE1 (Smith 1998: 284).

The title *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* clearly indicates that phraseology and grammar, two prominent features of the research conducted by Palmer and Hornby, were of the utmost importance in the dictionary design. The terms *idiomatic* and *syntactic* also betrayed the commitment to the encoding function. However, OALDCE1, the first pedagogical dictionary compiled for advanced learners (Cowie 2009: 398), could not have satisfied the needs of its intended users if it had offered support only for encoding; it had to be helpful in decoding as well. After all, learners consult dictionaries to both understand the foreign language and produce their own sentences. To his credit, Hornby designed a model, bequeathed to all subsequent compilers of advanced English learners' dictionaries, which could fulfill learners' productive and receptive requirements. No wonder, then, that OALDCE1 is regarded as "the

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1999b: 8), which can be found, among others, in OALDCE4-8, LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2. More details are offered in sections 1.4.3.1.3.2 and 1.4.3.1.4.

[16] No wonder, then, that McArthur (2005: 64) considers Palmer the (forgotten) grandfather of OALDCE.

first specimen of a contemporary learner's dictionary" (Zgusta 1989: 1), and its publication is seen as "something of a revolution" (Bogaards 2010: 21).

OALDCE1, as a general-purpose learners' dictionary (Cowie 1999a: 176), could not deal only with heavy-duty words, central to successful communication in English on a daily basis. For a reading vocabulary that would be broad and diversified enough for advanced users, Hornby turned to the third edition of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1934, hereafter COD3), and carefully eliminated from the wordlist the headwords which he thought highly unlikely to be useful to foreign learners (Cowie 1998a: 259). By all accounts, he also drew on definitions in COD3, but took great pains to tailor them to the needs of foreign dictionary users.[17] Besides, OALDCE1 supplies a variety of examples, which reflects the assumption that different example types can perform different functions. Clause and phrase examples, reduced to "minimal lexicalized patterns" (Cowie 1995: 285, 1996: 122), should be most helpful with the interpretation and correct use of headwords. Sentence examples can well perform these functions, but, on top of that, they can convey cultural or encyclopedic information. It is also interesting to note that in OALDCE1 examples and collocations are often merged; most clause examples are restricted collocations (Cowie 2009: 402). However, the role of examples as illustrations of coded verb patterns was openly acknowledged only in the second edition (OALDCE2: vi).

Rundell (2005: 739) emphasizes that "the most powerful impetus in the development of MLDs [monolingual learners' dictionaries] has been – and remains – the practical challenge of providing language learners with the resources to meet their twin communicative needs: 'receptive' understanding and 'productive' use of a second language". The success of the idea to pay attention to non-native learners of English and their need for information on grammar, and in particular – syntactic patterns, without consigning to oblivion their expectations concerning decoding, can best be gauged by the number of dictionaries, discussed below, which pursue the same purpose. The fact that the main collocation in the title of OALDCE1, *learner's dictionary*, has become the generic term for the new

[17] Examples of such modified definitions are cited by Cowie (1998a: 260), who also offers a quantitative comparison of headword samples from COD3 and OALDCE1. Although definitions in OALDCE1 were not restricted to a specific defining vocabulary, they were couched in simple language (Béjoint 2010: 165).

type of reference book further proves the achievement (Zgusta 2000: 15). The dictionary was indeed "the harbinger of a new genre" (Béjoint 2010: 197). Moreover, it is said to have formed "the template for most subsequent, major English dictionaries for advanced learners" and served as a "blueprint" for further generations of lexicographers (Rundell 2005: 739). The immense and uncontestable success of OALDCE, the first dictionary designed to facilitate a high-level use of English around the world, is even compared to that of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and the *Oxford English dictionary* (McArthur 2005: 64).

Overall, the early pedagogical dictionaries were achievements of experienced teachers of English sensitive to the needs of their students (Cowie 1983: 135). It was they who eventually developed innovative designs intended to meet these needs, bridge the gap in the teaching of grammar and lexicon and discourage learners from resorting to the mother tongue. These innovations include the use of a controlled vocabulary to frame definitions, the provision of syntactic information in the form of codes and the treatment of word combinations which are known to pose problems for foreign learners (Cowie 1990a: 685). West's contribution was in the first area. Palmer and Hornby, in turn, laid stress on the other two. Importantly, all these features were grounded in research and teaching experience. All of them acquired the status of conventions as the learners' dictionary became a distinct genre (Cowie 2009: 386). In particular, concise representation of syntactic patterns has become "a core feature" of pedagogical dictionaries (Rundell 2005: 740). As Battenburg (1991: 40) puts it, "[m]ore than any other feature, grammatical codes distinguish English MLDs from other works". It is the codes that are considered one of the most salient characteristics of the genre (McCorduck 1993: 29, Béjoint 1994: 73, Hartmann 1995: 54).

1.3. Further developments

OALDCE, the most famous dictionary of its kind, is viewed as an archetype that led to a whole range of general-purpose dictionaries for foreign learners of English (McArthur 2005: 60-61). Their titles and acronyms by which they are referred to below as well as publication dates are shown in

Table 1. For the sake of consistency, GEW and OALDCE1 are also included.[18]

Table 1. Major monolingual English learners' dictionaries 1938-2010

Publication date	**Dictionary**
1938	GEW
1942	OALDCE1
1963	OALDCE2
1974	OALDCE3
1978	LDOCE1 *(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English)*
1980	CULD *(Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary)*
1987	COBUILD1 *(Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary)* LDOCE2
1989	OALDCE4
1995	CIDE *(Cambridge International Dictionary of English)* COBUILD2 *(Collins COBUILD English Dictionary)* LDOCE3 OALDCE5

[18] The table does not list the *Merriam-Webster's advanced learner's English dictionary* (2008, hereafter MWALED), "the first full-featured advanced learner's dictionary from an American publisher" (Morse 2008b). Obviously, unlike the other dictionaries analyzed below, MWALED is grounded in the American lexicographic tradition and "makes use of many of the traditional devices of Merriam-Webster native speakers' dictionaries" (Morse 2008a). Thus, it falls outside the scope of the present book, concerned with British learners' dictionaries. It is worth noting, in passing, that MWALED has not been found particularly innovative, except for its dedicated website (Béjoint 2010: 191). Bogaards (2010: 25) notes that, apart from the number of examples, larger than in the British learners' dictionaries currently on offer, it does not contribute genuinely new elements to the genre. Yet, its examples, invented or adapted by lexicographers, are lacking in naturalness. However, to illustrate syntactic patterns, MWALED relies primarily on example sentences, and even verb complementation patterns are not spelt out, as is done in British learners' dictionaries. Invented examples also serve to cover phraseology, but without drawing learners' attention to their structure (Hanks 2009: 310, 312). In fact, MWALED, "a new horse in the Merriam stable", is considered primarily a decoding aid for second-language speakers of American English (Hanks 2009: 314). In Hanks's (2009: 310) words, "[a]ll the innovations … are taken, either verbatim or with trivial re-wording, from the practice of other dictionaries aimed at advanced learners. This may sound like a criticism, but it is not. Lexicography is accretive, and it is good to see a new book from a leading market-oriented publisher following best practice."

Publication date	Dictionary
2000	OALDCE6
2001	COBUILD3 *(Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners)*
2002	MEDAL1 *(Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners)*
2003	CALD1 *(Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary)* COBUILD4 *(Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary)* LDOCE4
2005	CALD2 OALDCE7
2006	COBUILD5 *(Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary)*
2007	MEDAL2
2008	CALD3 COBUILD6 *(Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary)*
2009	LDOCE5
2010	OALDCE8

OALDCE remained without a serious rival until the late 1970s. The year 1978, when LDOCE1 appeared, is seen as a key date and a landmark in the history of pedagogical lexicography (Herbst 1996: 332, Fontenelle 2009: 435). LDOCE1 is hailed as "a formidable competitor" to OALDCE, also because of its impressively systematic coding apparatus and an increased range of coded information (Benson – Benson – Ilson 1986: 229). It is in LDOCE1 that nouns as well as adjectives and adverbs were first consistently coded. Besides, the dictionary employed a controlled vocabulary in both definitions and examples (LDOCE1: xi). These features were further steps towards a balanced encoding-decoding design and made the appearance of LDOCE1 "quite a shock" (Bogaards 2010: 21).

Not long afterwards, in 1980, CULD was published, a much more modest dictionary, notable for the absence of coding systems (Stark 1999: 29), but with examples extensively used to convey syntactic information.[19] In 1987, the appearance of LDOCE2 and COBUILD1, followed by

[19] Cowie (1990a: 688) holds that resistance to information which is not directly accessible must have motivated such design decisions. While the dictionary supplies "copious and detailed examples of usage", its editors stress that only the grammatical information which is immediately comprehensible is provided (CULD: vi). Thus, verbs are classified as transitive / intransitive and marked *vt* / *vi*, respectively. Huang (1985: 60) is

the publication of OALDCE4 two years later, provided a further impetus for the development of English learners' dictionaries.

COBUILD1, "a maverick departure" (Clear et al. 1996: 308), was the first fully corpus-based dictionary of English, the publication of which is said to have marked another transition point in pedagogical lexicography (Moon 2009: 436).[20] The primacy of corpus data, the prioritization of frequency and lexico-grammatical patterning as well as full-sentence explanations are the chief characteristics of COBUILD1. It revolutionized dictionaries for learners, radically changed approaches to dictionary writing and lead to a new generation of corpus-driven pedagogical dictionaries (COBUILD6: v). The extent of the influence became fully apparent in 1995, when COBUILD2, LDOCE3, OALDCE5 and CIDE, a newcomer on the market, were published. All of them relied on corpus data. While in 1987 the use of corpus evidence was questioned, in 1995 it was a lexicographic norm. The role of COBUILD1 was that of a catalyst; its publication showed that a satisfactory dictionary entry had to be not only intuitively sound and clear to the user, but also consistent with corpus data (Moon 2009: 457).[21] In GEW and OALDCE1, phraseological and syntactic patterning was identified from experience of language and language teaching. COBUILD1, by contrast, had corpus evidence to find out what the patterns actually were, the assumption being that the dictionary should be a record, constructed from corpus evidence, of how language was ac-

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right to observe that in this respect, CULD is close to native speakers' dictionaries. Ultimately, the dictionary is not taken into consideration in further analyses.

[20] Ooi (1998: 33) points out that "what makes COBUILD especially remarkable is that the compilation process for COBUILD utilised the computer in all the four traditional lexicographic stages of data collecting, entry-selection, entry-construction and entry-arrangement". The computer was used, albeit less actively, already in the compilation of LDOCE1, where it served mainly to verify overall consistency. For example, it helped to check whether only words from the defining vocabulary were used in definitions (Meijs 1992: 144). It is also in LDOCE1 that traces of corpus reliance can be found. In this dictionary, examples of structural words were quoted from the files of the *Survey of English Usage* (SEU) and marked (SEU W) for quotations from written texts and (SEU S) for quotations from recordings of English speech (LDOCE1: ix-x, xxvi). The SEU, a corpus for grammatical analysis, was also extensively used in the compilation of the 1972 *Grammar of Contemporary English* by Quirk et al. (Béjoint 1994: 69, Herbst 2010: 34).

[21] As Tognini-Bonelli (2001: 85) puts it, the COBUILD project, "which reflects Sinclair's stances on language theory and descriptive methodology … can be seen as the very first study in corpus-driven lexicography".

tually used, rather than a reflection of how it was thought to be used (Sinclair 1987b: 108, Moon 2007: 165, 166).[22] Regrettably, COBUILD1 is not unflawed. The task of describing the language sometimes overshadowed the needs of the recipient of the description – the dictionary user.[23]

The dictionaries published in 1995, referred to as the Big Four, are considered the corpus generation (Moon 2009: 455). Five years later, on the occasion of the turn of the century, Oxford University Press put out OALDCE6, and in 2001 COBUILD3 appeared. The year 2002 was another important date in the history of pedagogical lexicography. MEDAL1, which "has taken the craft of pedagogical lexicography another step further on the long road to the ideal learners' dictionary" (Bogaards 2003: 54), was released. Consequently, the Big Four turned into the Big Five. Subsequent years witnessed the publication of their new editions, as shown in Table 1. In effect, in 2010, the following editions of the Big Five were available: OALDCE8, LDOCE5, COBUILD6, CALD3 and MEDAL2.[24]

Cowie (1999a: 144) points out that the circumstances under which pedagogical dictionaries are produced have transformed so much that even the dictionary editions published as revisions of the already existing volumes cannot be expected to be based solely, or even primarily, on their models. As Kernerman (2000: 826) observes, for fifty years after the crea-

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[22] Obviously, Johnson's *Dictionary of the English language* (1755) and the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1884-1928) were also based on evidence, but the evidence consisted of thoroughly examined collected citations. Unfortunately, their selection must have been biased. Fox (1987: 142) explains that if frequencies are not taken into account, people tend to focus on interesting, even though slightly unusual usage, rather than on what is central or typical, and thus seemingly uninteresting. This is how Rundell (2010: 171) encapsulates the role of corpora in pedagogical lexicography (and linguistics):

> [t]he corpus revolution … underpins a view of language as being not so much a storehouse of discrete items (words) that are stuck together using grammatical rules, but rather a system for creating meaning and combining words in ways that exhibit a high level of regularity. This emphasis (the thing that most certainly distinguishes the learner's dictionary from those aimed at mother-tongue users) is already hinted in the title of A. S. Hornby's ALD, the Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary … and has gathered pace in the wake of the 'corpus revolution'.

[23] The drawbacks of the COBUILD1 coding system are highlighted in sections 1.4.3.1.3.1 and 1.4.3.2.4.

[24] The different titles notwithstanding, CALD1 (vii) makes it clear that CIDE is its predecessor.

tion of the first learners' dictionaries very little changed. However, the 1980s were a watershed in pedagogical lexicography. It is claimed that a major, if not the major force leading to innovation was the growing availability of extensive citation files, coupled with increasingly large corpora (Cowie 2004: 40). The decade also heralded computer dominance in the process of dictionary making, increasing professionalism of lexicography and a substantial influence of research into dictionary use (Cowie 1999a: 144). Apart from the increasing awareness of dictionary users' needs and skills as well as strong reliance on corpus resources, a rising global demand for English, and thus an expanding worldwide market, which proved to be one of the most competitive markets in the world (Swanepoel 2000: 403), exerted a positive effect on the quality of pedagogical dictionaries.

In the 1990s, the equilibrium between decoding and encoding in pedagogical dictionaries was challenged as learners' dictionaries started to prioritize decoding. To facilitate entry navigation and help learners access sense divisions in complex entries, tools such as sign posts and menus (LDOCE3) and guide words (CIDE) were introduced (Bogaards 1998: 556). Besides, limited defining vocabularies were willingly adopted. There was also a tendency to lessen the encoding power of syntactic coding systems by omitting information on sentence functions (Cowie 1999a: 176). Nonetheless, codes were by no means confined to oblivion. In fact, despite the fundamental changes, all the elements of content and structure bequeathed by the founding fathers of pedagogical lexicography still remain the central features of foreign learners' dictionaries. However, while the core characteristics have hardly changed, there have been marked improvements not only in the information on which lexicographic description is based, but also in the ways it is presented. The attempts to optimize the form of presentation can be seen, in keeping with Zgusta's suggestion (1996: 336), as a manifestation of lexicographers' creativity in the pursuit of their aims with the help of available means.

Before the changes in the presentation of noun and verb syntax with the help of codes are investigated in section 1.4, it is worth paying attention to some problems which monolingual learners' dictionaries of English can pose. Only those which are relevant to further discussion will be considered.[25]

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[25] Detailed analyses of the strengths and weaknesses of monolingual learners' dictionaries, especially in comparison with bilingual ones, can be found, for example, in

Pedagogical dictionaries of English can be consulted, and are in fact designed to be used, by any foreign learners of the language, regardless of their mother tongue. They are seen as multifunctional lexicographic tools meant to assist the widest possible target group in whatever learning activities they engage in (Battenburg 1991: 21, Swanepoel 2000: 403). The internationalism of pedagogical dictionaries, emphasized in the title of CIDE, is a feature of the genre (McArthur 1998a: 24, Hung 2002: 30).

The emergence, at the beginning of the 20th century, of the direct method in language teaching, which consists in total immersion in the language being learnt, as well as the popularity of its successor, the audio-lingual method in the 1950s, were conducive to the development of monolingual dictionaries for learners of English around the globe. In broad terms, both these approaches discouraged reference to the mother tongue in the process of learning a foreign language, in contrast to the indirect, grammar-translation method, which prevailed in the 19th century (Battenburg 1991: 18-19). On top of that, the consolidation of the status of English as the language of communication and the resulting need for good learners' dictionaries which could be sold worldwide as aids to learning the lingua franca contributed to the advancement of pedagogical lexicography.

Yet, "when the pendulum swings it does not stop in the middle, but moves right to the other end" (Kernerman 2000: 827). The native language is again believed to play an important role in learning a foreign language and it is claimed that it could, or even should be used to students' advantage (Oskarsson 1975: 31, Battenburg 1991: 22, 119, Svartvik 1999: 287, Kernerman 2000: 827, Corrius – Pujol 2010a: 110, 2010b: 137). Tomaszczyk (1983: 45) even notes that some semantic and syntactic properties of words do not become apparent until they are confronted with their counterparts in another language.

No wonder, then, that monolingual (and global) learners' dictionaries are now considered to represent "a one-size-fits-all model, which has worked well for publishers but may not always have been the best solu-

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Atkins (1985: 15-23), Battenburg (1991: 18-24), Wingate (2002: 22-26) or Lew (2004: 4-12). Adamska-Sałaciak (2010) presents well-reasoned arguments for bilingual learners' dictionaries, integrally related to the inherent shortcomings of monolingual ones. One of the latest critical evaluations of monolingual learners' dictionaries is made by Yamada (2010), in whose view such dictionaries have become, quite surprisingly, "too easy to satisfy their intended users" (Yamada 2010: 162).

tion for users" (Rundell 2010: 170). Naturally, being non-user-language specific, pedagogical dictionaries are expected to cater for speakers of any native language (Atkins 1985: 15). Zgusta (1975: 99) maintains that they can be successful in achieving this goal only if they supply all the information any foreign learner would need. According to Piotrowski (1994: 137), such an aim is unattainable since there are no general or universal needs of dictionary users. He argues that the needs differ even when native speakers of one language are taken into consideration, let alone when different mother tongues come into play. Thus, it seems inappropriate to treat the users of pedagogical dictionaries as "a large, somewhat amorphous population, whose members usually range from late-adolescent to early middle-age, usually with some education either already acquired or in the process of being acquired, normally from high school … or college, or some professional school" (Zgusta 1989: 4). This statement alone implies that age and education, possibly also the level of proficiency in the foreign language, are among the variables which can affect the usefulness of monolingual English learners' dictionaries. In particular, as Leech and Nesi (1999: 302) presume, there must be a big difference between linguistically sophisticated and linguistically naïve users in their reference to and perception of syntactic codes. For the former, such codes can be meat and drink, for the latter, they can be baffling and off-putting.

Reference needs and skills are even more diversified when users' linguistic background is considered. Already in the late 1970s, Ginzburg et al. (1979: 228) observed that the essential flaw of OALDCE, the only large pedagogical dictionary of English at that time, is the fact that it does not take into account users' linguistic background, so it cannot effectively foresee and prevent possible linguistic problems of a specific national group of English learners. Interestingly enough, from the very beginning, Hornby et al. (OALDCE1: x) were well aware of the fact that similarities and differences between the syntax of users' native language and English can affect linguistic performance: "[i]n some languages (e.g. Japanese) little or no distinction is made between singular and plural. In other languages words that may be in the plural have English equivalents which must be used in the singular only (as French *nouvelles* and the English singular noun *news*)". However, syntactic contrasts between English and any other language were not accentuated in OALDCE1, sold on the global market. The aforementioned one-size-fits-all model was in fact "a real boon for publishers" (Rundell 2010: 171), since the same dictionary

could be sold to users whose real needs, capabilities and cultural backgrounds were richly diverse. As a matter of fact, even at the beginning of the 21st century it is still said that "[t]he problem is that the learner's dictionary is the same for all language communities, so that the young Japanese will have the same dictionary as the young Norwegian" (Béjoint 2010: 199). Unfortunately, as Piotrowski (1994: 137) points out, it is virtually impossible to compile one monolingual dictionary of English which would be equally helpful, for example, to the French, the Japanese, the Polish and the Danish. In his view, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity of prospective users is bound to affect dictionary usefulness. This conviction leads Piotrowski (1994: 138) to conclude that to make pedagogical dictionaries truly useful, linguistic specificity of various target user groups should be reckoned with. He argues that such dictionaries should be as detailed and reliable as those designed for users around the globe, but they should be supplemented with information which could satisfy the specific needs of learners from a given linguistic background. Similar claims have been made by Kernerman (2000: 828-829), who calls for the localization of English learners' dictionaries, or making them population-specific.

The issue of localization in the context of learning and teaching a foreign language was addressed by McArthur (1998a: 24), who identifies two complementary processes: globalization, that is designing reference materials for all people at all places, and localization, whereby the same materials are customized for one country or group of countries which have close linguistic associations. In his view, it is the localization of the universal learner's dictionary that has immense potential worldwide.[26] Arguing largely in the same vein, Atkins (1985: 22) sees the need for hybrid dictionaries for foreign learners, which could share some features of

[26] Zettersten (2007: 310) gives an example of the localized *Times-Chambers Essential Dictionary* (1997), the second (Singapore) edition, which contains standard British and American words specific to Singapore and Malaysia (referred to as SME) as well as regional words adopted into SME. Hung (2002: 30) mentions the *Macquarie Dictionary* (1997), a dictionary of Australian English, where considerable attention is paid to New Zealand English. Yet, the dictionary also features lexical items from Southeast Asian Englishes spoken in Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines (Kachru 2005: 164). Traces of localization can be found even in the most popular learners' dictionaries. CIDE and MEDAL, for example, include expression which can be used in English-speaking countries like New Zealand, Australia and South Africa (Bogaards 2010: 17).

monolingual and bilingual ones. Interestingly, she suggests many ways in which these can be combined. Apart from adding equivalents in users' mother tongue or translating definitions, examples and fixed phrases, the native language can be used as the metalanguage of the dictionary. On top of that, additional sections can be included, such as a survey of functional grammar of the language being studied. Battenburg (1991: 117) suggests that dictionaries designed for learners coming from similar native language backgrounds could even offer a contrastive core grammar in the text.

Monolingual learners' dictionaries were first bilingualized, that is adapted to a bilingual purpose by means of translation (Hartmann – James 1998: 14), as long as 40 years ago. The English-Chinese bilingualization of OALDCE2 put out in 1966 was the earliest publication of this type (Hartmann 1994: 207, Cowie 1999a: 192). Other bilingualized dictionaries for learners of English have been in circulation since then. In the 1990s, they were available in over 30 countries (Kernerman 2000: 828).

The terms *bilingualization* as well as *hybridization* and *semi-bilingualization* typically imply the use of two languages for semantic explanation (Lew 2004: 12). Corrius and Pujol (2010b: 137), in turn, applied the term *glocalization*, which they define as the interaction between the global and the local. In their view, a global product is more likely to be successful when it is adapted to a local audience. They argue that glocalization combines the advantages of both globalization and localization. The authors illustrate the process of glocalizing dictionaries with the help of "a global definition" of *traditional – a traditional activity is something that people from a particular place do regularly*, rendered more accessible to Catalan learners of English if followed by a local example – *The 'sardana' is a traditional dance in Catalonia* (Corrius – Pujol 2010b: 137).[27] Yet, even glocalization, as understood by Corrius and Pujol (2010b: 137), applies mainly to definitions and examples. Thus, hybrid dictionaries which combine the advantages of monolingual and bilingual ones as well as products of glocalization serve primarily decoding purposes (Hartmann 1993: 160, 1995: 59).

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[27] The definition and the example are taken from the *Easy English Dictionary with a Catalan-English Vocabulary* (2004), aimed at Catalan learners of English and designed to mediate more effectively than any other dictionary between English and Catalan (Corrius – Pujol 2010a: 111).

Especially relevant to the present dissertation, centered on syntactic codes, is the aforementioned claim by Atkins (1985: 22) that the mother tongue can affect the metalanguage of a dictionary. As Hartmann and James (1998: 93) explain, "[i]n lexicography, metalanguage includes such conventions as grammatical codes, labelling of usage and the formulation of definitions." While Atkins does not elaborate on her proposal, it might imply that maybe coding information on syntax in monolingual English learners' dictionaries should cease to be universal, and should rather be adjusted to the needs of dictionary users sharing the mother tongue. However, this conclusion would be justified if it could be shown that syntactic similarities and differences between dictionary users' mother tongue and English affect the user-friendliness of coded syntactic information.

Such a task touches on a virtually unexplored area of research. Admittedly, there were studies on the effect of language background on dictionary use, but they do not concern reference to codes in learners' dictionaries, let alone their user-friendliness. Yet, more often than not, the findings suggest that the user's first language is important. For example, in Ard's study (1982), two subjects, Japanese and Spanish, used bilingual dictionaries in writing. The author came to the conclusion that "students from languages 'close' to English … are more likely to be successful" (Ard 1982: 2). Meara and English (1988), in turn, noted systematic differences in the types of lexical errors made by learners from 14 different language backgrounds in First Certificate examination papers. The errors were checked against the information in the *Longman Active Study Dictionary* to see whether the dictionary could have prevented them if it had been consulted. It turned out that, for example, Swahili speakers were over three times more likely to meet "a dead end" than Finnish speakers at the same level, which suggests that "a particular dictionary can vary in its effectiveness for different … language groups" (Meara – English 1988: 1, 8).[28] As a matter of fact, the authors demonstrated that the same dictionary could be even more than twice as effective with speakers of some languages as with others. Likewise, Bogaards (1990: 94), who focused on the selection of search words when checking multi-word idioms by the French and the Dutch realized that the choices depend to a large extent on the mother tongue. Nesi (1994: 578), in turn, observed clear differences

[28] A dead end is a case "where a dictionary identifies an error but fails to tell you what to do about it" (Meara – English 1988: 8).

between the results of her Portuguese and Malaysian subjects with respect to the number of words looked up in a productive task, the time of dictionary consultation and the correctness of sentences constructed afterwards. The former knew fewer English words, accessed dictionary information less often and read it more quickly, but, all the same, produced more appropriate sentences than the latter. The author concluded that one of the reasons behind the differences might be the unequal proximity of English to the subjects' mother tongue (Nesi 1994: 576). All the aforementioned findings are at odds with those obtained by Battenburg (1991: 88), who conducted a survey among foreign students of English to find out, among other things, whether language learners perceived and consulted dictionaries differently depending on their native language background. The subjects represented the following environments: Arabic, Chinese, Korean, Urdu, Spanish, Portuguese and Icelandic. Battenburg (1991: 89) found that the learners' use of dictionaries was largely unaffected by their native language and cultural backgrounds. Unfortunately, the conclusion was based only on questionnaire results. Besides, the linguistic backgrounds were not represented in equal proportions.[29]

The general conclusion which follows from the studies is that people from different language backgrounds usually have different reference needs and approaches to dictionary use. However, the pieces of research do not answer the question whether syntactic information, and syntactic codes in particular, should be localized to better cater for the encoding needs of dictionary users sharing a mother tongue. In other words, it is not certain whether similarities and differences in syntax between English and the native language of a user group influence the user-friendliness of syntactic codes.

To conclude, syntactic codes have had their place in monolingual English learners' dictionaries since the time of Palmer and Hornby, and, as will be shown in subsequent sections, they remain the hallmark of the genre. Used at first to represent syntactic patterns of verbs, they were applied in time to other parts of speech. Besides, in the over 70-year history of pedagogical lexicography, the quality of information at the disposal of dictionary users has substantially improved. Thanks to the corpus revolution, the factual component of dictionaries has markedly increased at the

[29] In the sample of 60 students, there was, for example, only one native speaker of Icelandic and one of Portuguese, while as many as 24 subjects spoke Arabic.

expense of intuition. Yet, there are still doubts as to whether neglecting the native backgrounds of dictionary users with a view to catering for the needs of all learners of the lingua franca around the world is justified. In particular, it remains an open question whether syntactic codes should be localized to better serve users' productive needs, affected by interlingual syntactic similarities and differences.

Before attempting to answer this question, it is instructive to see how the presentation of syntactic information by means of codes has been changing in the history of pedagogical lexicography.[30] Apart from the form of codes, attention is paid to their distribution in the microstructure and congruity with examples, which illustrate coded information in real language. The metalexicographic analysis concerns noun and verb coding systems in all the editions of the major pedagogical dictionaries of English published since the appearance of GEW in 1938 until 2010.

1.4. Codes in dictionaries – a metalexicographic analysis

1.4.1. Preliminary remarks

The selection of nouns and verbs for the analysis of codes was determined by their syntactic properties. When it comes to nouns, countable, uncountable, reclassifiable and collective nouns were chosen.[31] An uncountable noun, such as *furniture* or *warmth*, usually denotes an undifferentiated mass or a continuum, and can be used without any determiner or with the definite article, but not with the indefinite one. It does not have a plural form. By contrast, a countable noun, e.g., *book* or *idea*, which typically designates an individual entity, admits a plural form. In the singular, it can take both the definite and indefinite articles, but cannot be used without any determiner (Quirk et al. 1972: 128). There are also nouns

[30] A few proposals for the directions in which coding syntax should develop have been presented in the literature on the subject so far (Cowie 1984: 155-156, Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 99-100, Aarts 1991a: 577, 581; 1999: 22, 31). A succinct summary of these suggestions is provided by Dziemianko (2006: 9-11). They are not discussed below.

[31] Since any detailed discussion of these noun classes falls beyond the scope of the book, only their general syntactic properties are outlined below. The categories of reclassifiable and collective nouns, which were used in the empirical investigation, get more attention in chapter two (section 2.1.2.3.1), where it is also explained how their properties affected the design of the experiment.

which can be both uncountable and countable (to represent quality partition), as in the following examples, cited after Quirk et al. (1985: 247):

3. A. Would you like *a cake*? [countable, a piece of cake]
   B. No, I don't like *cake*. [uncountable, a type of food]
4. The *lambs* are eating quietly. [countable, animals]
   There is *lamb* on menu today. [uncountable, a kind of meat]

Such reclassifiable nouns can be used in the plural, but when in the singular, they can take the definite and indefinite articles. They can also be used without any determiner at all (Quirk et al. 1985: 246-247). Finally, collective nouns, which designate a group of animate or inanimate entities and are usually defined syntactically, can be seen as a class of nouns distinguished on the basis of gender. The gender of English nouns is notional, rather than grammatical, i.e., nouns are not classified inflectionally, but semantically, according to their co-referential relations with personal, reflexive and relative pronouns (Quirk et al. 1985: 314). In the case of a collective noun in the singular, the co-referential personal and relative pronouns can be either the singular *it* and the relative *which*, or the plural *they* and the relative *who*, depending on whether the noun denotes a cohesive unit or a set of individuals, respectively. It follows that both singular and plural verbs can be used after a singular collective noun, e.g.,

5. a. The committee *has* met and *it has* rejected the proposal. [a cohesive unit]
   b. The committee *have* met and *they have* rejected the proposal [a collection of individuals] (Quirk et al. 1985: 316).

Overall, 48 nouns, which were cited by Quirk et al. (1985) as examples of the respective four noun categories, were chosen for the analysis of codes in pedagogical dictionaries. Each category was represented by 12 nouns, listed in Table 2.

Table 2. Nouns used in the analysis of coding systems

N°	**Category**	**Nouns**
1	countable nouns	*book* (pages inside a cover)
2		*box* (container)
3		*bun* (small cake)
4		*chair* (seat)
5		*child* (young human)

Nº	**Category**	**Nouns**
6	countable nouns	*dog* (domestic animal)
7		*foot* (part of the leg)
8		*idea* (thought)
9		*pig* (animal)
10		*remark* (comment, observation)
11		*toy* (for children)
12		*sheep* (animal)
13	uncountable nouns	*abuse* (insulting language)
14		*advice* (opinion on how sb should behave/act)
15		*anger* (the feeling which people have when sth unfair happens)
16		*applause* (the noise made by clapping hands)
17		*chaos* (state of confusion)
18		*equipment* (things needed for a particular purpose)
19		*evidence* (facts / objects that make people believe sth)
20		*furniture* (objects in a house or an office)
21		*information* (facts or details about sth)
22		*money* (means of payment)
23		*warmth* (state or quality of being warm)
24		*work* (employment)
25	countable / uncountable (reclassifiable) nouns	*beauty* (appearance / woman)
26		*beer* (alcoholic drink / type or unit of the drink)
27		*brick* (material / individual object)
28		*cake* (food / kind type or form of the food)
29		*cheese* (food / kind type or form of the food)
30		*coffee* (drink / kind sort brand unit of the drink)
31		*injustice* (abstract phenomenon / instance of the phenomenon)
32		*kindness* (being kind / kind act)
33		*lamb* (animal / meat)
34		*pleasure* (state / source of the state)
35		*regret* (abstract phenomenon / instance of the phenomenon)
36		*talk* (conversation / type of conversation)
37	collective nouns	*aristocracy* (nobility)
38		*army* (military forces)
39		*audience* (people who are watching/listening to sth (play, concert, etc.)
40		*committee* (group of people)
41		*crowd* (a large number of people)
42		*the enemy* (forces of a nation at war)
43		*family* (parents and children)
44		*government* (people responsible for a country/state)
45		*group* (people or things placed/connected together)
46		*herd* (a large number of animals)
47		*the opposition* (rivals, competitors)
48		*staff* (people working together in a business)

To analyze verb coding systems, an attempt was made to select a comparably numerous sample of verbs. Unfortunately, unlike in the case of nouns, the intrinsic diversity of transitive verb classes, manifested in complementation patterns, prevented the selection of four broad verb categories with 12 verbs in each of them. To represent a fair cross-section of verb complementation patterns, various realizations of transitive verb categories had to be considered. Such an approach made it possible to judge the accuracy of codes and see whether they reflect (fine) syntactic distinctions. These questions were especially interesting from the diachronic perspective.

The analysis concerns codes for pure intransitive verbs, which do not take any complementation, e.g. *die*, and codes for four categories of verbs which require complementation, i.e., copular (linking), monotransitive, complex transitive and ditransitive, as discussed by Quirk et al. (1985: 1170-1220). In brief, a copular verb requires a subject complement or a predication adjunct, which cannot be dropped without changing the meaning of the verb (Quirk et al 1985: 1171). Copular complementation can be illustrated by:

6. *She looks pretty*,
7. *He is my friend*,

where the adjective *pretty* and the noun phrase *my friend* perform the function of the subject complement (Quirk et al 1985: 1172).

Verbs in monotransitive patterns need a direct object, which may be a noun phrase or a clause, nonfinite or finite, e.g.,

8. *They remembered the meeting / it / meeting each other / when to meet / to meet each other / (that) they had met* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1178).

Complex transitive verbs are followed by an object and an element which is not an object. The latter is the object complement and can be realized by a noun or an adjective, an adverbial or a nonfinite clause acting as a predication adjunct. Both the object and its complement are notionally equated with the subject and predication, respectively, of a nominal clause, and are syntactically divisible (Quirk et al. 1985: 1195). Admittedly, the complex transitive structure:

9. *She presumed her father (to be) dead*,

is equivalent in meaning to the corresponding monotransitive construction:

10. *She presumed that her father was dead.*

Yet, *her father (to be) dead* does not act syntactically as a single constituent, as evidenced by the passive:

11. *Her father was presumed (by her) (to be) dead.*

The divisibility of a semantically clausal construction following the verb is the defining property of complex transitive complementation (Quirk et al. 1985: 1195). Besides, although in complex transitive patterns the non-finite clause has no subject, its implied subject is invariably the preceding noun phrase, which, in turn, is the object of the superordinate clause (Quirk et al. 1985: 1202).

Ditransitive verbs, by contrast, need two objects. In the most basic form, the pattern involves two noun phrase objects: an indirect object, which is typically animate and positioned first, and a direct object, which is usually concrete, e.g.,

12. *He gave* <u>*the girl*</u> indirect obj. <u>*a doll*</u> direct obj.-

Unlike in the case of complex transitive verbs, the constituents of a ditransitive pattern are not in a copular relationship. The difference between complex transitive and ditransitive constructions can be seen in:

13. *He found her a loyal friend* (complex transitive; she was a loyal friend),
14. *He found her an apartment* (ditransitive; the apartment was for her) (Quirk et al. 1985: 1208).[32]

Variants of ditransitive complementation include cases where the function of the direct object is performed by finite clauses, e.g., *that-* or *wh-*

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[32] Likewise, a copular construction with a nominal subject complement (15) looks essentially the same as a monotransitive one with a nominal object (16), e.g.,

15. *William is my friend,*
16. *Tom caught the ball.*

Yet, in 15, there is a co-reference relation between the subject (*William*) and the subject complement (*my friend*). Such a relation does not obtain between the subject (*Tom*) and the object (*the ball*) in the monotransitive pattern in 16.

clauses, and non-finite ones, e.g., *wh*- or *to*-infinitives (Quirk et al. 1985: 1212-1216).[33]

Overall, 24 complementation patterns, taken from Quirk et al. (1985: 1171), were included in the analysis: two copular, nine monotransitive, seven complex transitive and six ditransitive. Each pattern was represented in the study by two verbs. Besides, two intransitive verbs were taken into account. Overall, 50 verbs made up the sample. All the selected verbs are cited by Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) as examples of the respective verb categories. For the sake of convenience and future reference, the verbs and the patterns which they represent as well as example sentences are shown in Table 3.[34]

Table 3. Verbs used in the analysis of coding systems

N°	**Cat.**	**Subcategory**	**Verb**	**Example**
1	intr.	pure intransitive	arrive	John has arrived
2			matter	Your views do not matter
3	copular	adjectival subj. complement	become	The girl became very restless
4			seem	The girl seemed very restless
5		nominal subj. complement	be	William is my friend
6			prove	Shares proved a poor investment
7	monotransitive	with the passive	believe	I don't believe you
8			catch	Tom caught the ball
9		without the passive	have	They have a nice house
10			lack	He lacks confidence
11		that-clause as object	hope	Everybody hoped (that) we would sing
12			think	I think (that) we have met
13		wh-clause as object	confirm	Can you confirm which flight we're taking?
14			guess	Can you guess what she said?
15		wh-infinitive clause as object	forget	You must not forget when to keep your mouth shut
16			learn	I learned how to sail a boat
17		subjectless infinitive clause as direct object	ask	I asked to see the manager
18			decide	We've decided to move house
19		subjectless ing clause as object	deny	The accused denied having met the witness
20			enjoy	She enjoys playing squash
21		complementation by to-infinitive clause (with subject)	like	They don't like the house to be left empty
22			want	They want us to help
23		complementation by ing participle clause (with subject)	hate	I hate the children quarrelling
24			risk	I won't risk you(r) becoming my neighbor again

[33] Examples are tabulated below.

[34] Adapted from Quirk et al. (1985: 1171).

N°	Cat.	Subcategory	Verb	Example
25	complex transitive	adjective phrase as object complement	drive	That music drives me mad
26			keep	You should keep the cabbage fresh
27		noun phrase as object complement	appoint	The queen appointed William (to be) her personal secretary
28			name	They named the ship 'Zeus'
29		complementation by object and adjunct	see	May I see you home?
30			slip	I slipped the key into the lock
31		object + to-infinitive complementation	know	They knew him to be a spy
32			report	The police reported the traffic to be heavy
33		object + bare infinitive complementation	let	You shouldn't let your family interfere with our plans
34			see	I saw her leave the room
35		object + ing participle complementation	hear	I heard someone shouting
36			watch	Tim watched Bill mending the lamp
37		object + -ed participle complementation	find	They found him worn out by travel and exertion
38			get	I got the watch repaired
39	ditransitive	noun phrases as both indirect and direct obj.	envy	She envied John his success
40			offer	They offered her some food
41		object and prepositional obj.	blame	They blamed John for the divorce/the divorce on John
42			warn	Mary warned John of the dangers
43		indirect object + that-clause obj.	remind	They reminded passengers (that) no smoking is allowed
44			tell	They told me (that) I was ill
45		indirect object + finite wh-clause obj.	ask	They asked me what time it was
46			inform	Jim was reluctant to inform us (of) where he got the money
47		indirect object + wh-infinitive clause obj.	advise	They advised him what to wear in the tropics
48			teach	The instructor taught us how to land safely
49		indirect object + to-infinitive clause obj.	advise	I advised Mark to see a doctor
50			persuade	I persuaded Mark to see a doctor

Closer attention should be paid to the structures in Table 3 which on the surface look the same. While examples 13-16 above show some of them, others are also worth considering, since the problem of superficial similarity of underlyingly different patterns comes to the fore in code analysis (section 1.4.3.1). The construction *verb sb/sth -ing participle* can represent a monotransitive complementation pattern realized by an *-ing* participle clause with a subject (17) as well as a complex transitive one with a nominal object followed by an *-ing* participle object complementation (18), e.g.,

17. *I hate Tom driving my car,*
18. *I watched Tom lying on the beach.*

Even though superficially the same, the patterns differ in that the noun phrase following the superordinate verb in 17 can take the genitive (or possessive) form, but the one in 18 cannot, i.e.,

19. *I hate him/his driving my car,*
20. *I watched him/*his lying on the beach* (Quirk et. al 1985: 1206).

Another difference between the patterns is that in 18, the *-ing* predication can be omitted without radically altering the meaning, i.e.,

21. *I watched Tom lying on the beach* – entails *I watched Tom*,

but

22. *I hate Tom driving my car* – does not entail *I hate Tom* (Quirk et. al 1985: 1206).

Likewise, the monotransitive, complex transitive and ditransitive constructions illustrated by, respectively:

23. *We like [all parents to visit the school]*$_{obj.}$,
24. *We know [James]*$_{obj.}$ *[to be honest]*$_{obj.\ complement}$
25. *We persuaded [the students]*$_{indirect\ obj.}$ *[to attend the lecture]*$_{direct\ obj.}$

all conform to the pattern *verb sb/sth to infinitive*, or $N_1VN_2toVN_3$. Quirk et al. (1985: 1218) posit a gradient between these constructions and recognize 23 and 25 as end-points of the gradient, with 24 at some point on the scale between them.[35] Sentence 23 is at the monotransitive end of the scale since it satisfies a number of criteria, which suggest that *all parents to visit the school*, or N_2toVN_3, constitutes a direct object. Among others,

A. N_2toVN_3 can be replaced by a pronoun referring to the infinitival clause or by a noun phrase nominalizing it, i.e.,

26. *We like it*,
27. *We like all parents' visits;*

---

[35] In Aarts's (2004b: 5) words, "[g]radience can be characterized as a grammatical notion which refers to the (perceived) interlacing of the categories of language systems".

B. there is no difference in meaning between 23 and the passive construction in which N_2toVN_3 is turned into N_3*to be Ved by* N_2:

28. *We like the school to be visited by all parents* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1218).[36]

At the ditransitive end of the scale, contrasting criteria characterize sentence 25 and suggest that *the students* (N_2) is an indirect object, whereas *to attend the lecture* $(toVN_3)$ – a direct one. In particular,

A'. the infinitive $(toVN_3)$ can be replaced by a pronoun, a noun phrase or a finite clause, the intermediate noun phrase (N_2) still functioning as indirect object, e.g.,

29. *We persuaded the students that they should attend the lecture* (Quirk 1985: 1213).[37]

In the case of some ditransitive verbs, the criterion can also be interpreted as the replacement of the infinitive $(toVN_3)$ by a preposition and a prepositional object, e.g.,

32. *We persuaded the students of the need to attend the lecture* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1219).

B'. in the passive construction where the noun phrase originally following the infinitive (N_3) occupies the place of the intermediate noun phrase $(N_1VN_3$*to be Ved by* $N_2)$ the meaning is always changed, or the passive transform results in an absurdity, e.g.,

33. **They persuaded the lecture to be attended by the students* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1218).

Quirk et al. (1985: 1217) conclude that there is little doubt that the intermediate noun phrase in 23 (N_2, *all parents*) is to be analyzed as the subject

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[36] See Quirk et al. (1985: 1218-1219) for a full list of the criteria.

[37] In the corresponding ditransitive pattern of *ask*, e.g.,

30. *We asked the students to attend the lecture,*

all the three substitutions for the infinitive $(toVN_3)$ are possible:

31. *We asked the students something / a question / what they wanted* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1218).

of the infinitive, whereas in 25 there are strong reasons to consider it (N_2, *the students*) the indirect object of the main clause.

Sentence 24, in turn, partakes of both descriptions. Semantically, it is closer to 23, since the whole postverbal string *James to be honest* (N_2toVN_3) can be replaced by a finite clause or *it*, i.e.,

34. *We know [James to be honest] – We know that James is honest; we know it.*

Structurally, however, an analysis similar to that of 25 is more appropriate. In both 24 and 25, N_2 (*James* in 24 and *the students* in 25) becomes the subject of the passive:

35. *James is known to be honest*,
36. *The students were persuaded to attend the lecture*.

This is impossible for 23,

37. **All parents were liked to visit the school.*

Thus, in sentence 24, the intermediate noun phrase (N_2, *James*) behaves like an object in relation to the main verb (*know,* sentence 35), but like a subject with respect to the infinitive verb (*be,* sentence 34) (Aarts 2007: 223). The term *raised object* is suggested to recognize this double analysis "by envisaging the process whereby the subject of the infinitive becomes the object of the preceding finite verb" (Quirk et al. 1985: 1217).[38]

The class of complex transitive verbs which on the surface conform to the pattern $N_1VN_2toVN_3$ is by no means uniform. The passivization N_3*to be Ved by* N_2 helps to distinguish two classes of complex transitive verbs, one closer to the ditransitive type (e.g., *allow*), the other – to the monotransitive type (e.g., *expect*). In the case of *allow*, the passive transformation in question responds to criterion *B'* and results in a change of meaning:

38. *We don't allow residents to entertain visitors,*

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[38] Aarts (2007: 185) points out that the raised object, or the subject of a deep structure which is raised to object position at the surface level, caused rifts in the generative camp, with Chomsky arguing against raising and analyzing 24 like 23, and descriptively oriented grammarians being more inclined to treat N_2, *James*, as a direct object. Thus, "in each theoretical tradition, an either/or choice has been made" (Aarts 2007: 185). The issue resurfaces in section 1.4.3.1.2.

39. **We don't allow visitors to be entertained by residents* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1219).

However, in the case of *expect*, the transformation meets criterion *B*, since it does not entail any meaning distortion:

40. *They expected James to win the race,*
41. *They expected the race to be won by James* (Aarts 2007: 223).

Although the analysis of such constructions is "highly contentious", there is no doubt that they display "a mixture of morphosyntactic properties that can be associated with two different construction types", di- and monotransitive (Aarts 2007: 223).

The grammar by Quirk et al. (1985) is acknowledged to be a major descriptive grammar of English where gradience, however imprecisely defined and devoid of any principled account, plays an important role (Aarts 2004b: 2). This advantage, coupled with the fact that gradience is "an undeniable property of any categorial system" (Aarts 2004b: 3), not only further justifies reliance on the aforementioned grammar in the present book, but also influences the way syntactic patterns are referred to in the text below. Wherever possible, reference to the classifications by Quirk et al. (1985), tabulated above, is accompanied by a rough indication of superficial structures, e.g*., let sb/sth do sth* or *watch sb/sth doing sth*, so as to provide an immediate insight into the surface nature of the patterns, irrespective of how, if at all, they are classified in a given dictionary. Besides, the awareness of gradience and problems with distinguishing discrete categories affected many decisions concerning the assessment of the adequacy of codes, as discussed in the next section. It should nonetheless be stressed that gradience does not mean abandoning the idea that categories have boundaries, let alone dismissing categorization itself. In fact, syntactic classes "can be strictly kept apart while allowing them to 'converge' on each other" (Aarts 2004b: 3).[39] Importantly, the descriptive

[39] Aarts (2004b: 3) explains that convergence takes place when an element from class A displays morphosyntactic properties of another distinct class B. Yet, the element is still assigned to class A as long as its A-like properties outweigh B-like ones. He also warns against accepting the views of radical categorizationalists as well as those of "gradience-is-everywhere" linguists. While "gradience in grammar is intuitively plausible", there is a danger that "an unfettered use of the notion" will lead to sloppy descriptions (Aarts 2004b: 3).

representation of superficial structures in the text below is motivated only by ease of reference, but it does not in any way entail disregarding categorization in the analysis of codes. As will be shown in what follows, paying attention to categories was in fact indispensable for analyzing codes in early learners' dictionaries, and, for the sake of consistency, the same approach was adopted with respect to more recent ones.

The following discussion of noun and verb coding systems in pedagogical dictionaries of English opens with general remarks on the level of adequacy of syntactic codes for the selected structures. An attempt is also made to investigate the extent to which they are illustrated in examples. This brief analysis is quantitative in nature and paves the way for further, qualitative stages of the investigation. Once adequate codes have been identified and sifted out from irrelevant ones, their form is analyzed in further sections.

1.4.2. Adequacy of codes and examples

1.4.2.1. Evaluating codes and examples

Before the analysis proper could be performed, a number of important decisions had to be made. With respect to noun codes it was noted that they sometimes included not only symbols in the form of letters, digits or abbreviations, but also whole words, e.g., *plural* or *verb*. The words which made up codes along with short symbols were naturally taken into consideration, e.g., [C also + plural verb BrE] (LDOCE3, *committee*) or [C + SING/PL VERB] (CALD3, *committee*).[40] Labels which consisted of one or two words, e.g., *countable, uncountable* or *group noun*, and usually conveyed relevant information on the syntax of headwords on their own were also accepted, provided that they occupied the place typical of codes in a given dictionary and were not overlong, descriptive phrases or clauses. Importantly, this made it possible to analyze the ways of conveying noun syntax in GEW and OALDCE1-3. To illustrate, [group noun C] (CALD1, *herd*) or [Uncountable] (GEW, *information*), positioned in the entry line after the phonetic transcription, like many other codes in the dictionaries, could be included in the analysis. By contrast, the note "can

[40] See also section 1.1. In what follows, codes or their components cited in the text are enclosed in square brackets.

be followed by a singular or plural verb", found in both editions of MEDAL after the definitions of *audience1, committee, family1* or *group1*, could not be taken into account. Not only does it occupy a place where codes do not occur in MEDAL, but it is also excessively long. In the OALDCE2 entry for *family1*, in turn, the code [C] preceding the definition is supplemented by the following statements after relevant examples: "Note sing. vb. after collective noun" and "Note pl. vb. after *family*, as members of my family". They could not be treated as even parts of codes in view of their length. Also, in the dictionary in question, codes usually do not follow examples.

Apart from the cases where the length and distribution of syntactic information precluded studying it together with codes, there were also codes whose form and placement raised no doubts, but which were simply inadequate for the purposes of the investigation. For example, nouns which can be both countable and uncountable where coded either as only countable or only uncountable. Similarly, collective nouns were coded as countable or uncountable ones, without any information whatsoever on variable concord with the verb in number.

Inadequate verb codes, in turn, usually supplied incomplete information on the patterns of transitive verbs. Such codes were limited to verb symbols or showed only part of the expected complementation pattern. For example, the verbs *warn* and *blame*, representing the ditransitive pattern where the verb is followed by an object and a prepositional object (*warn sb of/about/against sth, blame sb for sth/sth on sb*), are coded simply [T] and [T or I] in CIDE and CALD1-3. The prepositions introducing prepositional objects are usually marked in bold in example sentences, but no pertinent information is given in codes.[41] Likewise, the code [V + O], which COBUILD1 assigns to *see*, *hear* and *watch*, was found inadequate in the absence of any information on the bare infinitive or the *-ing* participle complementation required after the object in the complex transitive patterns which the verbs were selected to represent (*see sb/sth do sth, hear/watch sb/sth doing sth*). Similarly, the verb code [T] for *appoint* in CIDE and CALD1-3 does not reveal that the object of the verb can be followed by a nominal object complement (*appoint sb sth*), like in the pattern selected for the analysis. It is interesting to note that the complex transitive pattern of *find* where the object is followed by an *-ed* participle

[41] See section 1.4.3.1.3.1.

clause most often proved inadequately coded. Usually, the need for an adjective phrase, and not an *-ed* participle clause, was signaled in verb codes. Even when object complementation is represented in codes for the pattern *find sb/sth + -ed participle*, e.g., [V+O+C] (COBUILD1), but the complement is defined as realized by an adjectival group or a noun group (COBUILD1: 1629), the code could not be accepted, either.[42]

Dealing with codes for monotransitive, complex transitive and ditransitive verbs in OALDCE4 and LDOCE1 was fairly challenging, since the dictionaries offer different symbols for different categories of transitive verbs, happen to be inconsistent in their assignment, and, at least occasionally, diverge from the categorization presented in Table 3. In the end, verb codes were taken into consideration in the analysis as long as they properly reflect the complementation patterns of specific verbs, even though the verb symbols in such codes do not represent the classes to which the verbs belong according to Quirk et al. (1985). For example, in OALDCE4, the complex transitive constructions *let sb/sth do sth* and *see sb/sth do sth* are coded [Cn.i] and [Tni], respectively. The different symbols for the verb classes notwithstanding, the codes were accepted since both of them show a noun phrase [n] followed by a bare infinitive [i] in the complementation patterns of the verbs.[43]

As already mentioned above, different complementation patterns invite contentious (functional) analyses and can be categorized in different ways by different grammarians (Aarts 1992: 21-36, 2004a: 371-374, 2007: 223, Clear et al. 1996: 313, Hunston – Francis 2000: 45). Colleman (2002: 66) rightly observes that it is in fact impossible to reconcile functional categories with "theory neutrality". He argues, with reason, that while there is a general agreement as to what constitutes a noun phrase or an adjective in English, it is virtually impossible to define grammatical relations, such as direct or indirect object, in a theory-independent way. No wonder, then, that grammar is seen as "a hotbed of terminological confusion" (Hanks 2008a: 94). As verb categorization on the basis of complementation is likewise difficult, it should not be expected to be uni-

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[42] The use of the *-ed* participle in the complex transitive pattern in question could be illustrated by: *I found him worn out by travel and exertion* (Quirk et al. 1985: 1207) or *I found them surprised*, but not by *I found him happy* or *I find it surprising*. Besides, as shown in Table 3, the complex transitive pattern *verb sb/sth + adjective* is represented in the study by two other verbs (*drive* and *keep*).

[43] Other such cases are discussed in section 1.4.3.1.2.

form in all dictionaries. Therefore, the representation of verb complementation in codes played a decisive role in the evaluation of verb codes, rather than the assignment of verbs to categories. It is worth noting that in the dictionaries where there are no symbols for classes of transitive verbs, it is only the account of complementation patterns in codes that could ultimately matter. This was another reason for adopting the same criterion with respect to the dictionaries where verb classes are indicated in codes.

A representation of a complementation pattern in a code was considered adequate if it met two conditions. First, the number of constituents in the complementation structure had to be the same as in the accepted model. Second, direct parallels could be drawn between the complementation constituents in the code and in the model in Table 3. Importantly, the coded representation did not have to be identical with that suggested by Quirk et al. (1985). Considering the aforementioned problems with syntactic analysis, different categories of linguistic description were allowed. For example, the complex transitive pattern of *drive*, *drive sb/sth + adjective*, is described by Quirk et al. (1985: 1171, 1196) as made up of an object followed by an object complement realized by an adjective phrase. However, in the analysis, the following codes for this pattern of *drive* were considered adequate: [T+obj+adj] (LDOCE2), [V+O+C] (COBUILD1) and [V n adj] (COBUILD5). For one thing, they reflect the expected number of constituents of the complementation pattern. For another, notwithstanding the different coding conventions accepted in the dictionaries, there are clear correspondences between the symbols in the verb codes and the constituents of the complementation pattern of *drive* according to Quirk et al. (1985). Since, as already mentioned, [C] in the COBUILD1 code [V+O+C] represents a complement realized by an adjective group or a noun group, it was possible to accept the code as adequate for *drive sb/sth + adjective*, even though it was considered inadequate for *find sb/sth + -ed participle*, as explained above.

In the case of opaque codes, from which neither verb classes nor complementation structures can be inferred, their explanation in the outside matter had to parallel the accepted model. To illustrate, GEW assigns the code [V.P.17] to *want sb to do sth* and *advise sb to do sth*, which, as shown in Table 3, represent monotransitive and ditransitive constructions, respectively. However, in the coding stock of GEW there are no separate codes for the construction in question depending on whether the noun phrase immediately following the verb is its indirect object or the subject

of the infinitival object. The code was thus accepted in both cases, even though in the dictionary it represents *verb x direct object x to infinitive*. However, *want sb to do sth* and *advise sb to do sth* are both cited as examples of [V.P.17] in the outside matter of the dictionary (GEW: 281). For the purpose of the analysis, it is important that the pattern met the criteria described above. First, it matched the accepted model set out by Quirk et al. (1985) in terms of the number of constituents in the complementation structure. Second, it was possible to draw quite obvious parallels between the pattern components and the model, the different categorization of the noun phrase before the infinitive notwithstanding. For the same reasons, [P3], a code given in OALDCE1 to both verbs under discussion, was accepted in the study as well. In that dictionary, it stands for v*erb x noun or pronoun x (not) to x infinitive, etc*. (OALDCE1: xii).

Unfortunately, some inadequate codes of copular verbs were found. For example, in both editions of MEDAL, the verb *seem* has the code [I], which implies that it does not need any complementation (MEDAL1-2: the inside front cover). Since, as already mentioned, copular verbs do require complementation, the code in question conveys in fact misleading information on the syntax of *seem*, especially in view of the fact that the dictionaries have the label [linking verb] for verbs "which are followed by a noun or adjective complement describing the subject" (MEDAL1-2: the inside front cover).

Finally, it is important to note that the codes subjected to analysis in the following sections were sometimes extracted from the sequences in which they occur. To illustrate, in OALDCE3, the code for the verb *forget* in the pattern *forget wh*-infinitive, [VP8], had to be singled out from among the following codes at *forget1*: [VP6A, C, D, 8, 9, 10, 2A, 3A]. Likewise, the same pattern is represented in COBUILD1 by [V+REPORT-CL], which, however, is part of the following sequence at *forget1* [V+O/REPORT-CL/-ING].[44] Additional restrictions on syntactic behavior, e.g., [*not in progressive forms*], were ignored. The monotransitive verbs *have* and *lack* are the only exceptions, since they were purposely chosen to see how constraints on passivization are represented in dictionaries. Yet, in the absence of any manifestation thereof, codes adequately representing the transitivity of the verbs were also included in the analysis.

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[44] Reference to the same sequences is made in section 1.4.3.1.3.1.

Once codes appropriate for the selected nouns and verbs had been identified, an attempt was made to see whether they were illustrated in examples. These had to be read very carefully, since even seemingly good examples sometimes failed to adequately reflect the syntactic properties shown in codes. The examples supplied by LDOCE1 for *advice1*, i.e., *I asked the doctor for his advice* and *On his advice I am staying in bed*, fail to show unequivocally that the noun is uncountable; *his* can be used as a determiner also with countable nouns, e.g., *his book*. Thus, the examples are insufficient to draw conclusions about the countability of *advice*. In OALDCE4 (*advice1*), by contrast, the example *You should take legal advice* shows the context typical for an uncountable noun.

Both countable and uncountable uses of reclassifiable nouns had to be illustrated. The following example of *kindness1* from COBUILD3: *We've been treated with such kindness by everybody*, indicates that the headword is uncountable. The lack of another example where the noun would be used countably means that the verbal illustration is insufficient to account for the fact that the headword allows both countable and uncountable uses. By contrast, the information can be easily grasped from the following examples in OALDCE7 (*kindness1,2*): *to treat sb with kindness and consideration, I can never repay your many kindnesses to me*. Interestingly, COBUILD3 offers the following examples at *brick1*: *She built bookshelves out of bricks and planks… a tiny garden surrounded by high brick walls*. While the first one shows the countable use of the headword, in the other one *brick* is used attributively, as a pre-modifier of *walls*, and in this regard it resembles an adjective. As such, the *brick* in *high brick walls* does not have to be taken by dictionary users as an uncountable noun. After all, countable nouns can also function attributively as pre-modifiers of other nouns, e.g., *city, cupboard* or *dish* in the phrases: *the city council – the council of the city, cupboard doors – the doors of the cupboard, a dish cloth – a cloth for dishes*. The following examples show the uncountable *love* and *life* in the same function: *a love poem – a poem about love, his life story – the story of his life* (Quirk el at. 1972: 240, 914). Thus, the two COBUILD3 examples cited above were eventually considered insufficient to illustrate the fact that the noun *brick* can be both countable and uncountable. For the same reason, that is the attributive use of a noun as a pre-modifier of another noun, the seemingly obvious fact that *toy* is countable is not revealed by the LDOCE1 example at *toy1*, i.e., *a toy soldier*, where the indefinite article is related to *soldier*, not *toy*.

To illustrate relevant syntactic codes of collective nouns, in turn, examples, apart from countability, had to explicitly show the possibility of singular and plural concord of the verb with a collective noun in the singular. The following examples from OALDCE5 (*committee*): *be/sit on a committee, the committee has/have decided to dismiss him*, obviously perform the expected function. However, the information that *staff* can be a subject of both plural and singular verbs is altogether absent from the examples supplied in COBUILD1 (*staff1*), i.e., *She was invited to join the staff of the BBC… We've got a staff of about forty… a major error of judgement by one of his staff… There are two students to every member of staff… airline staffs*.

While examples in noun entries had to be studied very carefully to find out whether they show the syntactic information conveyed by the codes considered adequate for the purposes of the study, dealing with examples in verb entries turned out to be much less problematic. Relevant verb codes were as a rule accompanied by verbal illustrations which fleshed them out. The infrequent instances of unsatisfactory illustration of verb codes usually followed from the absence of examples showing the selected syntactic features rather than their inappropriateness. Yet, apart from the situations where no examples were supplied in a given (sub)entry, or examples illustrating only the relevant code were missing, there were also the rare cases where examples where present and they did illustrate the verb code considered relevant for the purpose of the study, and, still, they could not be accepted as appropriate. The examples given in OALDCE7 for the verb *forget* in the monotransitive pattern where the function of the object is performed by a *wh*-infinitive clause are a case in point. The verb code [V wh-] is accompanied there by the following sentences: *I've forgotten where they live exactly* and *I forget how much they paid for it* (OALDCE7, *forget1*). Admittedly, in each of them, a *wh*-clause does perform the function of the object of *forget*, yet – it is not infinitival. Thus, the examples obviously fail to illustrate the structure which the verb in question was to embody in the study. However, they do illustrate the code, since [wh-] in OALDCE7 codes can introduce both finite and infinitival *wh*-clauses, e.g., *where the library was, how to research a subject thoroughly* (OALDCE7: R38). That is why the code was found relevant for the selected pattern. By contrast, the verb *learn*, representing in the study the same monotransitive construction as *forget*, is also given the code [V wh-] in OALDCE7. Yet, in this case, the dictionary supplies ex-

amples which illustrate the pattern with the infinitival *wh*-clause, i.e., *He's still learning how to dance, Today we learnt how to use the new software* (OALDCE7, *learn1*).

The results of the scrutiny of noun and verb codes as well as the examples accompanying them were entered into a spreadsheet to perform a broad quantitative analysis. The obtained information is presented below.

1.4.2.2. A quantitative analysis

The results of the preliminary, quantitative analysis of codes and examples are summarized in Table 4. For each dictionary, the table shows in absolute and relative terms how many codes adequately represent the selected syntactic structures and how often the relevant codes are properly illustrated in examples. The proportions for codes were calculated with reference to 48 (nouns) and 50 (verbs), i.e., the sample totals.[45] The percentages of examples illustrating the relevant codes, in turn, were computed on the basis of the total number of codes which in a given dictionary were accepted as adequate for the selected structures. As the number of relevant codes, and not the total number of observations, served here as a point of reference, the proportions concerning examples might exceed those which refer to codes. The percentages calculated for codes are illustrated graphically in Figure 1. The arrangement of dictionaries was determined by the dates when they were first published. Consecutive dictionary editions are grouped together.

Table 4. Relevant codes and examples in the samples

Dictionary	**Codes**				**Examples**			
	Nouns		**Verbs**		**Nouns**		**Verbs**	
	Counts	**(%)**	**Counts**	**(%)**	**Counts**	**(%)**	**Counts**	**(%)**
GEW	7	14.6	30	60.0	6	85.7	30	100.0
OALDCE1	22	45.8	41	82.0	16	72.7	38	92.7
OALDCE2	23	47.9	43	86.0	16	69.6	41	95.4

[45] Obviously, the data do not reveal why some proportions are lower than 100 – whether some codes were found inadequate or certain structures are not included in the dictionaries. Such details are given in next sections.

Dictionary	Codes				Examples			
	Nouns		Verbs		Nouns		Verbs	
	Counts	(%)	Counts	(%)	Counts	(%)	Counts	(%)
OALDCE3	24	50.0	47	94.0	19	79.2	44	93.6
OALDCE4	43	89.6	45	90.0	33	76.7	43	95.6
OALDCE5	42	87.5	46	92.0	38	90.5	44	95.7
OALDCE6	42	87.5	49	98.0	37	88.1	46	93.9
OALDCE7	42	87.5	49	98.0	37	88.1	46	93.9
OALDCE8	42	87.5	49	98.0	38	90.5	47	95.9
LDOCE1	41	85.4	48	96.0	18	43.9	44	91.7
LDOCE2	38	79.2	47	94.0	28	73.7	47	100.0
LDOCE3	44	91.7	45	90.0	36	81.8	44	97.8
LDOCE4	44	91.7	44	88.0	40	90.9	44	100.0
LDOCE5	44	91.7	44	88.0	39	88.6	44	100.0
COBUILD1	43	89.6	42	84.0	35	81.4	38	90.5
COBUILD2	47	97.9	46	92.0	32	68.1	46	100.0
COBUILD3	47	97.9	46	92.0	32	68.1	46	100.0
COBUILD4	46	95.8	46	92.0	28	60.9	46	100.0
COBUILD5	46	95.8	46	92.0	28	60.9	46	100.0
COBUILD6	46	95.8	46	92.0	27	58.7	46	100.0
CIDE	47	97.9	41	82.0	43	91.5	41	100.0
CALD1	45	93.8	42	84.0	38	84.4	42	100.0
CALD2	45	93.8	42	84.0	38	84.4	42	100.0
CALD3	45	93.8	42	84.0	38	84.4	42	100.0
MEDAL1	36	75.0	41	82.0	31	86.1	41	100.0
MEDAL2	36	75.0	41	82.0	31	86.1	41	100.0

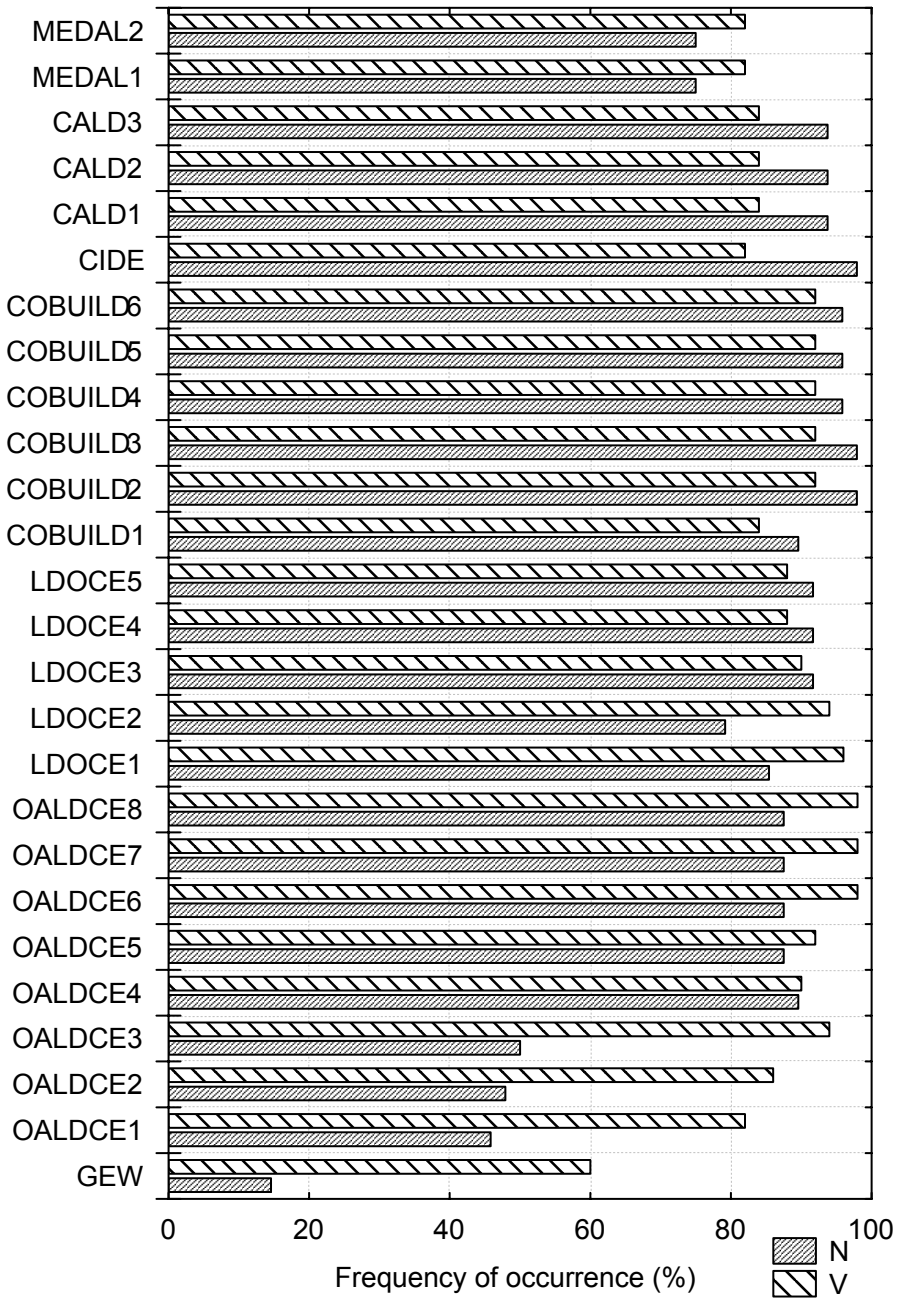

Figure 1. Relevant codes in the samples

As can be seen, in most dictionaries, at least 80 percent of all the selected nouns are properly coded. In CIDE and COBUILD2-6, the proportion even exceeds 95 percent. MEDAL1-2 fall outside this range, as they adequately code syntactic information on nouns in three fourths of all cases. However, the fewest relevant noun codes were found in OALDCE1-3, where only around half nouns from the sample are given proper codes. The corresponding proportion is over three times lower for GEW, a dictionary which offers only the labels *uncountable* and *countable*.[46]

In GEW and the OALDCE1-3, codes are much more frequent in verb entries. In OALDCE3 relevant verb codes were identified almost twice as often as noun codes, and in GEW – four times. Also in OALDCE6-8 and LDOCE1-2 the proportion of suitable verb codes vastly exceeds that of noun codes, but the gap is not so conspicuous there; appropriate verb codes are around 20 (LDOCE2) and 12 percent (LDOCE1, OALDCE6-8) more frequent there than noun codes. Similar differences between the percentages are visible for CIDE and CALD1-3, with that the dictionaries are more successful in coding syntactic information on nouns than verbs. In general, the proportion of relevant verb codes in the dictionaries taken into account ranges from around 80 percent (OALDCE1, CIDE, MEDAL1-2) to almost 100 percent (OALDCE6-8). Only in GEW were adequate verb codes identified in two thirds of all cases.

Figure 2 shows how often appropriate noun and verb codes are illustrated in examples.

[46] The issue resurfaces in section 1.4.3.2.1.

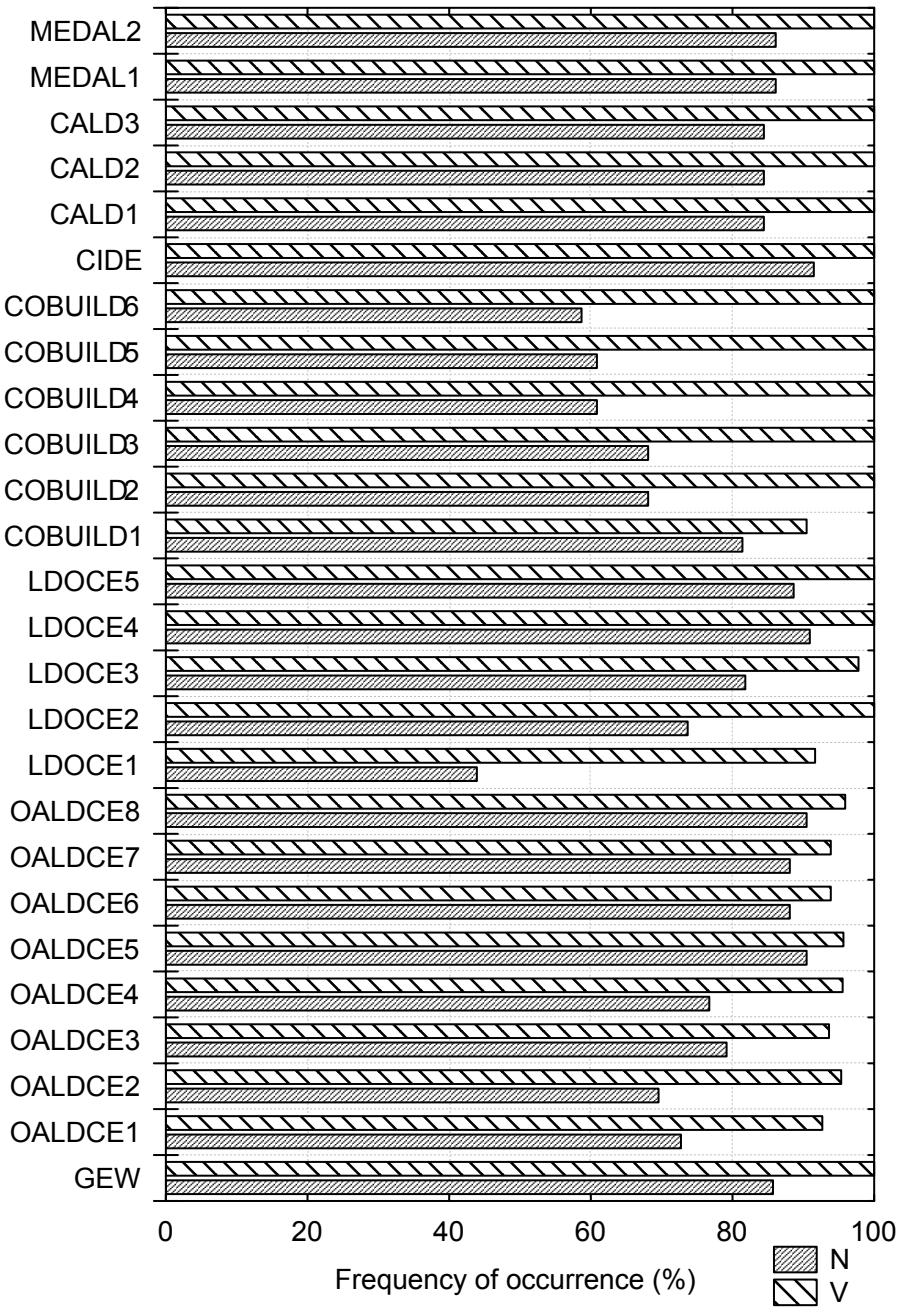

Figure 2. Proportions of examples illustrating relevant codes in the samples

Clearly, in each dictionary, verb codes are illustrated in examples more often than noun codes. Over 90 percent of all the verb codes considered adequate for the selected syntactic structures are fleshed out in examples in each case, and in the majority of dictionaries – all of them. By contrast, the highest proportions of examples matching the accepted noun codes at best only approximate 90 percent, as is the case in CIDE, LDOCE4-5 as well as OALDCE5-8. In the other dictionaries, from 60 to 85 percent of noun codes are illustrated in examples. It is only in LDOCE1 that no more than two fifths of noun codes are accompanied by satisfactory verbal illustrations.

Overall, the above cursory analysis of the data suggests that the dictionaries, except for those published before 1978, are fairly successful in coding syntactic information on the selected nouns and verbs,. Also, all of them provide satisfactory illustration of verb codes by means of examples. Thus, Herbst's (1996: 354) conclusion that the coverage of verb patterns does not provide a crucial distinguishing criterion between pedagogical dictionaries of English remains topical. However, the syntactic properties of nouns shown in codes are much less often reflected in examples. Apparently, verbal illustration of noun syntax has not been preoccupying lexicographers so much as the exemplification of verb patterns.

In what follows, an attempt is made to see how codes and examples which illustrate them are distributed across noun and verb classes. No attention is paid to specific dictionaries. Instead, only the categories of nouns and verbs listed in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively, and cumulative totals for all 26 dictionaries are taken into consideration. Table 5 and Figure 3 show the distribution of codes and examples across the categories of nouns.

Table 5. Relevant codes and examples by noun category

Noun class	**N**	**Codes**		**Examples**	
		Counts	**%**	**Counts**	**%**
Countable	312	240	76.9	204	85.0
Uncountable	312	304	97.4	290	95.4
Reclassifiable	312	281	90.1	219	77.9
Collective	312	202	64.7	89	44.1

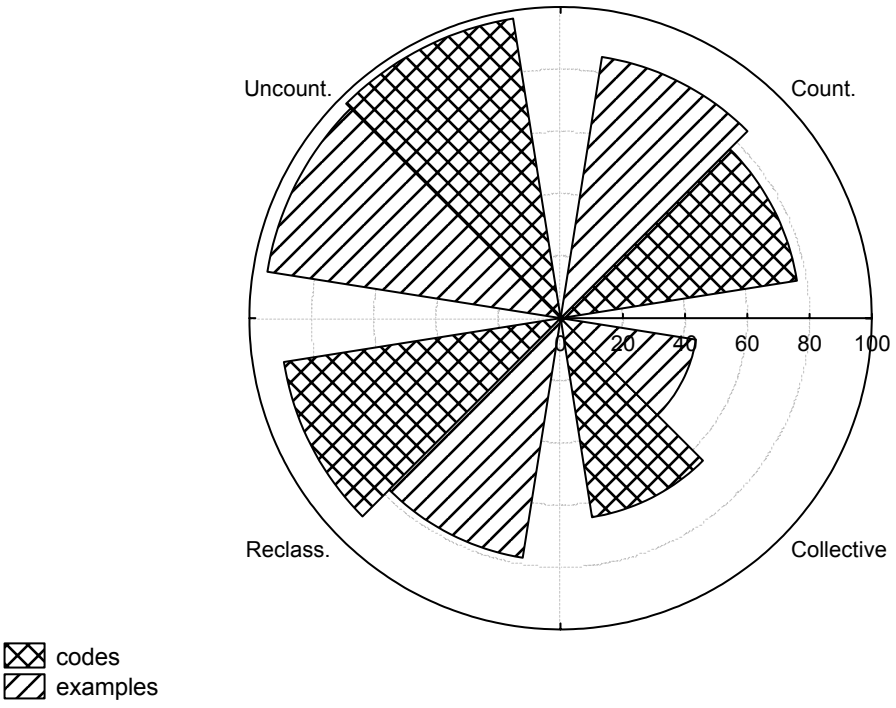

Figure 3. Relevant codes and examples by noun category

As can be seen, uncountable nouns are almost always coded properly, followed by nouns which can be both countable and uncountable; about 90 percent of reclasifiable nouns are given relevant codes. Countable nouns are assigned adequate syntactic codes in around three fourths of all cases, while collective nouns – in three fifths. When exemplification is taken into account, the same noun classes come at the end points of the hierarchy; almost all codes for uncountable nouns, but not even half of those for collective ones, are accompanied by satisfactory examples. The proportions of examples matching codes for countable and reclassifiable nouns approximate 80 percent, although the percentage for the former noun category exceeds that for the latter by nine percent.

To analyze the distribution of relevant codes and examples across the verb categories, the necessary data are shown in Table 6 and Figure 4.

Table 6. Relevant codes and examples by verb category

Verb class	N	Codes		Examples	
		Counts	%	Counts	%
Intransitive	52	52	100.0	52	100.0
Copular	104	98	94.2	96	98.0
Monotranistive	468	413	88.2	399	96.6
Complex transitive	364	309	84.9	305	98.7
Ditransitive	312	276	88.5	267	96.7

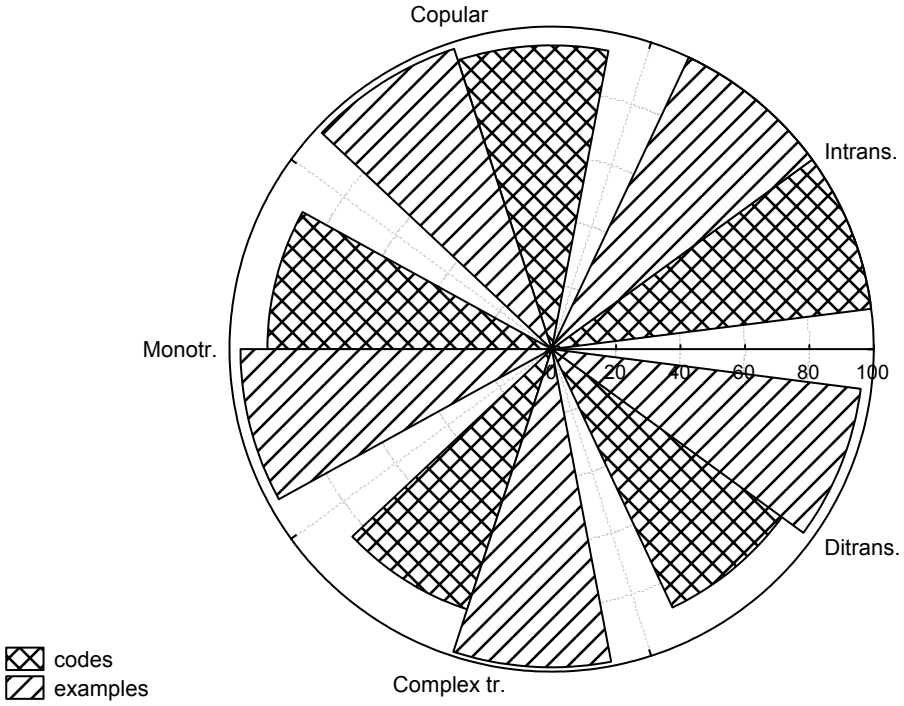

Figure 4. Relevant codes and examples by verb category

First, for each verb class, almost all relevant codes are adequately illustrated in examples. Second, there is not much difference between the verb categories in the proportions of codes, either. In the case of intransitive verbs, all codes are appropriate. For copular verbs the proportion of relevant codes exceeds 90 percent, while for the categories of transitive verbs, around 85-88 percent of codes were found acceptable. It should be remembered, however, that the classes of transitive verbs are much more

internally varied than copular and intransitive ones, and they were represented in the study by a larger number of verbs. As only two intransitive verbs and four copular ones were taken into account, the results concerning these two categories might provide only a crude approximation of reality.

Nonetheless, the above overview suggests that coding syntactic information on verbs does not depend on their class so much as coding noun syntax appears to hinge on noun categorization. Besides, supplying verbal illustrations of the constructions shown in verb codes proves to be a standard practice, whereas proper exemplification of nouns is not only much more often missing, but in the case of collective nouns it is even little short of a rarity. Only the regularly provided codes for uncountable nouns turn out to be accompanied by examples as a matter of routine. In general, then, coding and exemplifying verb syntax can be seen as more consistent and class-independent than coding and exemplifying the syntax of nouns.

The findings presented above corroborate the remark made by Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986: 236) to the effect that even though pedagogical dictionaries give information on the countability of nouns, it is to the syntax of verbs that they pay particular attention. Similarly, Fontenelle (2009: 416) notes that, especially at the early stages of pedagogical lexicography, the countable-uncountable distinction was reflected in dictionaries, but hardly any more comprehensive account of noun syntax was provided. At the same time, almost all verbs were assigned codes. Besides, even the countable-uncountable distinction was not consistently drawn, since in many dictionaries countable nouns were treated as the unmarked case, and only uncountability was considered marked (McCorduck 1993: 40). Thus, countable nouns, with the exception of "less obvious ones" (Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 18), were not coded at all. No wonder, then, that it is uncountable and reclassifiable nouns that most often proved to be given relevant codes in the present study.[47] The focus on uncountability, apparently to the neglect of other aspects of noun syntax, must also be a reason for the frequent absence of coded information on the syntax of collective nouns.

In the late 1990s, Klotz (1999: 42) observed that syntactic properties of nouns were less consistently represented in dictionaries than those of

[47] The unmarkedness of countable nouns is discussed in section 1.4.3.2.1.

verbs, and called for giving nouns the same careful treatment. Even earlier, Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 62) saw the need for more well-chosen examples to illustrate syntactic properties of nouns. The above analysis demonstrates that the need is still strong, and, on top of that, exposes persistently unequal representation of noun classes in codes.

The foregoing overview does not concern the methods used to convey syntactic information in pedagogical dictionaries, which are said to have been substantially revised (Rundell 1999: 45). To get an insight into the developments in the presentation of noun and verb syntax by means of codes, the quantitative, preliminary analysis is followed by a thorough qualitative investigation. The qualitative study of coding systems in pedagogical dictionaries of English, offered in section 1.4.3, falls into two parts. Exceptionally, the first one (section 1.4.3.1), is devoted to verb codes, and the second one (section 1.4.3.2), deals with noun codes. As already mentioned, this order has been adopted to reflect the sequence in which coding systems for the two parts of speech emerged in English pedagogical lexicography.[48] The analysis of the form of codes is supplemented by information on their distribution in the microstructure. However, unlike in the quantitative study above, the dictionaries are not arranged by the dates of their first publication. Instead, different dictionaries are grouped together according to the coding conventions which they adhere to.

1.4.3. Form of codes – a qualitative analysis

1.4.3.1. Verb codes

The structure of the following discussion of verb coding systems is determined by the findings already presented in the literature on the topic (Herbst 1996: 330, Dziemianko 2002: 222, 2006: 13). On the basis of their form, verb codes have been divided in the way shown schematically in Table 7.[49] Apart from the names of verb coding systems, which serve as column headings, the table lists the dictionary editions in which the systems can be found. For the sake of convenience, the dates of their publica-

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[48] Compare section 1.1 and section 1.2.

[49] Adapted from Table 5.1 discussed by Herbst (1996: 328-331) and Table 1.1 analyzed by Dziemianko (2006: 13-19).

tion are also given. Boldface indicates in which dictionaries verb codes refer to formal categories of linguistic description only.

Table 7. Types of verb coding systems in pedagogical lexicography (1938-2010)

Neither transparent nor mnemonic	**Mnemonic**	**Transparent**	**Pattern illustrations and verb frames**
GEW (1938)	LDOCE1 (1978)	LDOCE2 (1987)	LDOCE3 (1995)
OALDCE1 (1942)	**OALDCE4 (1989)**	COBUILD1(1987)	LDOCE4 (2003)
OALDCE2 (1963)		**COBUILD2 (1995)**	LDOCE5 (2009)
OALDCE3 (1974)		**COBUILD3 (2001)**	MEDAL1 (2002)
		COBUILD4 (2003)	MEDAL2 (2007)
		COBUILD5 (2006)	OALDCE8 (2010)
		COBUILD6 (2008)	
		OALDCE5 (1995)	
		OALDCE6 (2000)	
		OALDCE7 (2005)	
		CIDE (1995)	
		CALD1 (2003)	
		CALD2 (2005)	
		CALD3 (2008)	

Subsequent sections give detailed justification for assigning the verb coding systems in specific dictionaries to the categories named in Table 7. The discussion begins with neither mnemonic nor transparent systems and ends with a look at pattern illustrations and verb frames. In the case of transparent codes, the systems based on formal categories of linguistic description are studied separately from those where sentence functions are also referred to.

The discussion of each type of coding system begins with a brief summary of its typical features. Then, attention is paid to the instantiations of the system, or solutions adopted in the dictionaries where verb codes of a given type have been found. The consistency and accuracy of the specific system implementations are considered on the basis of the selected sample of verb patterns. Such an analysis would be impossible if only general characteristics of verb coding strategies were presented, without paying attention to the detailed (dictionary) level. Wherever applicable, important developments in the diachronic perspective are also signaled.

1.4.3.1.1. Neither transparent nor mnemonic

The analysis opens with the earliest, highly elaborate verb codes considered "the epoch-making feature in English lexicography" (Nguyen 1986: 63). This extremely economical and mathematically symmetrical coding system, found in GEW and OALDCE1-3, is not mnemonic, let alone transparent. Codes for the selected verb patterns in the four dictionaries are shown in Table 8.[50]

Table 8. Opaque verb coding systems: GEW and OALDCE1-3

	Verb	**GEW**	**OALDCE1**	**OALDCE2**	**OALDCE3**
I	arrive	*See* V.P.1	P21	VP21	VP2A
	matter	*See* V.P.1	P21	VP21	VP2A
Linking	become	*See* V.P.2	P22	VP22	VP2D
	seem	*See* V.P.2	P22	VP22	VP4D
	be	*See* V.P.2	–	–	VP1
	prove	–	–	VP22	VP4D
Monotransitive	believe	*See* V.P.4	P1	VP1	VP6A
	catch	*See* V.P.4	P1	VP1	VP6A
	have	*See* V.P.4	P1	VP1	VP6B
	lack	–	P1	VP1	VP6B
	hope	*See* V.P.22	P11	VP11	VP9
	think	*See* V.P.22	P11	VP11	VP9
	confirm	–	–	–	–
	guess	*See* V.P.26	P15	VP15	VP10
	forget	*See* V.P.26	P13	VP13	VP8
	learn	*See* V.P.16	P13	VP13	VP8
	ask	*See* V.P.15	P2	VP2	VP7A
	decide	*See* V.P.15	P2	VP2	VP7A
	deny	–	–	VP17A	VP6C
	enjoy	–	P17A	VP17A	VP6C
	like	–	P3	VP3	VP17
	want	*See* V.P.17	P3	VP3	VP17
	hate	–	–	–	VP19
	risk	–	–	–	–

[50] In all the tables with codes in sections 1.4.3.1 and 1.4.3.2, the hyphen in a cell means that a given construction, headword or sense is absent from a dictionary. The codes which are crossed out and shown on a grey background have not been accepted as adequate for the selected patterns.

	Verb	GEW	OALDCE1	OALDCE2	OALDCE3
Complex transitive	drive	–	–	VP7	VP22B
	keep	*See* V.P.7	P7	VP7	VP22
	appoint	–	P8	VP4	VP23
	name	–	P8	VP8	VP23
	see	*See* V.P.6	P10	VP10	VP15A
	slip	*See* V.P.6	P10	VP10	VP15A
	know	–	P4	VP4	VP25
	report	–	–	VP4	VP25
	let	*See* V.P.14	P5	~~v.t.&i.~~	VP18B
	see	–	P5	VP5	VP18A
	hear	~~*See* V.P.4~~	P6	VP6	VP19A
	watch	*See* V.P.20	P6	VP6	VP19A
	find	~~*See* V.P.8~~	~~P7~~	~~VP7~~	~~VP22~~
	get	*See* V.P.21	P9	VP9	VP24C
Ditransitive	envy	–	P19C	VP19	VP12C
	offer	*See* V.P.11	P19	VP19	VP12A
	blame	~~*See* V.P.4 & 5~~	P18	VP18B	VP14 ~sb (for sth); ~sth on sb
	warn	*See* V.P.10	P18	VP18	VP14
	remind	*See* V.P.23	P12	VP12	VP11
	tell	–	P12	VP12	VP11
	ask	*See* V.P.26	P16	VP16	VP21
	inform	*See* V.P.26	P16	VP16	VP21
	advise	*See* V.P.26	P14	–	VP20
	teach	*See* V.P.18	P14	VP14	VP20
	advise	*See* V.P.17	P3	VP3	VP17
	persuade	–	P3	VP3	VP17

As can be seen, verb codes in GEW and OALDCE1-3 take the form of alphanumeric references to the explanation of verb patterns in the outside matter (the back matter in GEW and the front matter in OALDCE1-3). Beginning with [VP] or [P], in GEW additionally preceded by the cross-reference [*See*], the codes indicate the number at which it is possible to find relevant explanations. In GEW there are 27 coded verb patterns. In OALDCE1-3 their nominal number is limited to 25.

OALDCE1 is praised for its improved explanation of verb patterns in comparison with GEW as well as greater consistency in the assignment of codes to verbs and their distribution in the microstructure (Cowie 1998a:

260-261).[51] Table 8 exposes also the less space-consuming form of codes in OALDCE1 than in GEW. The change was probably necessitated by greater space constraints in OALDCE1, a multi-purpose, medium-sized dictionary, than in GEW, a typically encoding dictionary dealing with the core lexis (Cowie 1999a: 46, 2009: 394).

While Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986: 229) find OALDCE1 highly successful simply in applying Palmer's principles on a larger scale, Cowie (1999a: 32-33) notes that the system of verb codes in OALDCE1 went some way towards solving the problem of assigning one code to functionally distinct structures, GEW being accused much too often of reflecting only superficial category differences and similarities. Table 8 makes it clear that the monotransitive patterns *guess wh-clause* and *forget wh-infinitive* as well as the ditransitive ones *ask / inform sb/sth wh-clause* and *advise sb/sth wh-infinitive* are all given the same code in GEW, i.e., [*See* V.P.26]. In the dictionary, the code represents *verb x (direct object) x conjunctive and clause* (GEW: xvi).[52] In OALDCE1 (xii), in turn, as many as four codes are employed to account for the patterns. i.e.:

forget wh-infinitive [P13]	*verb x conjunctive x to x infinitive*
advise sb/sth wh-infinitive [P14]	*verb x noun or pronoun x conjunctive x to x infinitive, etc.*
guess wh-clause [P15]	*verb x conjunctive x clause*
ask / inform sb/sth wh-clause [P16]	*verb x noun or pronoun x conjunctive x clause.*

OALDCE1 was seen as a "significant step forward" because it set out to indicate the differences in verb syntax which GEW did not manage to

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[51] The improvement in the explanation of codes in OALDCE1 results mainly from the fact that the coded patterns are collated in tables with examples. Among the advantages of the new layout, Cowie (2009: 399) lists a close correspondence between columns and the structural elements in a pattern as well as the coupling up of the subject and the verb in a single column. The latter property made it possible to illustrate subject inversion and omission in interrogative and imperative constructions without any distortion of the tables. Besides, it is evident from Table 8 that OALDCE1 outdoes GEW inasmuch as in the sample of only 50 verbs it gives 11 more relevant codes. Nonetheless, this advantage of OALDCE1 is (also) due to its extensive wordlist; some of the selected verbs were not among the 1000 GEW headwords. See section 1.2, where the wordlists of the dictionaries are discussed.

[52] Conjunctives are *wh*-question words (GEW: 293). Any code explanations cited from a dictionary are given in italics.

bring to the surface (Cowie 1999a: 33). While, in this context, the impression that the treatment of verb patterns in GEW represents "a provisional or experimental stage" (Cowie 1999a: 38) might appear quite justified, it should be noted that not all underlying differences neglected in GEW were brought out in OALDCE1. Table 8 shows that the code [*See* V.P.17] (*verb x direct object x to x infinitive*, GEW: xvi), which GEW assigns to the monotransitive pattern *want sb to do sth* and the ditransitive one *advise sb to do sth*, was replaced in OALDCE1 by one code as well, i.e., [P3] (*verb x noun or pronoun x (not) to x infinitive, etc.*, OALDCE1: xii), rather than two distinct codes.[53]

Palmer is said to have been aware of the fact that a scheme of verb patterns should account for underlying (or functional) rather than superficial (or constituent-class) similarities and differences (Cowie 1999a: 30-31). Yet, the description of post-verbal elements in terms of functional categories is inconsistent in his scheme. As shown above, in the explanation of [V.P.26] (*verb x (direct object) x conjunctive and clause*), *direct object*, a functional category, co-occurs with *clause*, which can realize different functions. In Palmer's account of verb complementation in GEW only phrases are assigned specific functions; clauses are not (Cowie 2009: 391).

The system of codes in OALDCE2 was largely the same as that in OALDCE1 (Cowie 1989: 589, 1998a: 263), a conclusion which follows also from Table 8.[54] However, a closer look at the codes in OALDCE1-2 suggests that the actual number of coded patterns in the dictionaries is larger than 25. As Table 8 shows, *envy* is coded [P19C] in OALDCE1, and *blame* gets the code [VP18B] in OALDCE2. Indeed, even though verb pattern numbers range from 1 to 25 in both dictionaries, in the second edition three patterns: [VP17], [VP18] and [VP19], are subdivided into A, B and C, and the subcategories of [VP25] range from A to E. This

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[53] See section 1.4.2.1, where [*See* V.P.17] and [P3] are cited to justify the strategy adopted to assess verb codes.

[54] Yet, as can be seen, *appoint sb sth* is in OALDCE2 coded [VP4], while in OALDCE1 it has the code [P8]. The latter stands for a *verb x object x noun* (OALDCE1: xv), whereas the former – *verb x noun or pronoun x (to be) x complement* (OALDCE2: xv). The examples given in the explanatory section in OALDCE2 (xvii) clearly show that the complement in [VP4] can also be a noun, e.g., *I consider it (to be) a shame*. Thus, both patterns can represent what Quirk et al. (1985: 1199) see as a complex transitive construction in which object complementation is realized by a noun phrase.

is an extension on the first edition, where the four patterns have subcategories as well, but [P18] falls into A and B only, and [P25] does not have subset E. The actual number of patterns in OALDCE1 is then 33, and in OALDCE2 – 35.[55]

Cowie (2009: 403) notes that OALDCE2 significantly increased the number of examples in comparison with the first edition. Unfortunately, the sample of 50 verbs proved insufficient to substantiate this conclusion, since, as shown in Figure 2 and Table 4 in section 1.4.2.2, the proportion of relevant examples in the second edition is not much different from that in the first one.

While the system of verb patterns in OALDCE2 remained essentially the same as that in OALDCE1, "critical reshaping" of the scheme was clearly visible in the third edition (Cowie 2009: 403). The changes were inspired by the increasing professionalization of teaching English as a foreign language and developments in grammar, fueled, among others, by the research conducted at the Survey of English Usage and crowned with the publication of the *Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972) by Quirk et al. The growing responsiveness to developments in grammar, also among teachers of English, impressed on Hornby the need to adapt the next edition of OALDCE to the new situation (Cowie 2009: 406).

Largely under the influence of the aforementioned grammar book, verb patterns in the third edition were rearranged. Cowie (1999a: 99) identifies the following sequence of codes in OALDCE3: copular and intransitive [VP1-4E], monotransitive [VP6A-10], ditransitive [VP11-21], complex transitive [VP22-25], which, in his view, owes a great deal to the framework in the *Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972). However,

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[55] In both dictionaries, the subcategories of patterns [VP18] (*verb x direct object x prep. x prepositional object*) and [VP19] (*verb x direct object x indirect object*) are distinguished on the basis of the prepositions which they allow and the possibility of pattern conversion ([VP18] into [VP19] and the other way around) (OALDCE1: xix-xxi, OALDCE2: xxii-xxv). It is interesting to note that in the case of [VP17], which applies to verbs followed by a gerund, the identification of the subcategories is largely motivated by semantics: [VP17A] means that the gerund may be replaced by an infinitive with a change in meaning, [VP17B] indicates that such a replacement does not entail any change in meaning, in group [VP17C] the gerund is equivalent to a passive infinitive (OALDCE1: xviii, OALDCE2: xxii). Also, the subcategories of pattern [VP25] (*verb x to x infinitive*, OALDCE1: xii, OALDCE2: xv) are distinguished on the basis of meaning. To illustrate, [VP25A] represents an infinitive of purpose, while [VP25B] – that of result (OALDCE2: xxvii).

the names of the verb classes are not set out in the front matter, since, as Cowie (2009: 409) suspects, Hornby must have been aware of the fact that they would not be clear to dictionary users.

Table 8 raises doubts as to whether the assignment of codes to patterns in the dictionary reflects this verb categorization indeed as faithfully as suggested by Cowie (1999a: 99). As can be seen from the table, the monotransitive patterns *like / want sb/sth to do sth* and *hate sb/sth doing sth* are given codes [VP17] (*verb x noun or pronoun x to infinitive*) and [VP19] (*verb x noun or pronoun x present participle*), respectively. Yet, the codes, in the light of the above, should not be assigned to monotransitive constructions, but ditransitive ones. Likewise, the complex transitive pattern *slip / see sb/sth somewhere*, coded [VP15A] (*verb x direct object x adverbial clause*), should be given a code from the range [VP22-25], [VP15] being applicable to ditransitive constructions. Importantly, all the verb patterns just mentioned are classified as mono- and complex transitive, as appropriate, in the grammar book by Quirk et al. (1972: 834, 837, 842, 851). Thus, possible difference in verb typology by Quirk et al. in 1972 and in 1985 cannot account for the inconsistencies, even though the categorization in Table 8 is based on the more recent source.

By contrast, the verbs *let / see sb/sth do sth* and *hear / watch sb/sth doing sth*, are treated by Quirk et al. (1972: 834) as monotransitive, and not complex transitive, as later suggested by Quirk et al. (1985: 1204, 1206). Either way, in the light of Cowie's classification of verb patterns in OALDCE3, they should not be given codes [VP18A/B] (v*erb x noun or pronoun x infinitive*) and [VP19A] (*verb x noun or pronoun x present participle*), which, in his view, go with ditransitive verbs.

In OALDCE3, like in the previous editions, the highest number assigned to a verb pattern is 25 as well, but in actual fact, there are over twice as many codes in the dictionary. Pattern subdivisions, indicated by the first letters of the alphabet, increase the overall number of different patterns to 51.[56] It is worth noting that OALDCE3 is quite consistent in

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[56] Unfortunately, not all of them are accounted for in the outside matter. [VP22B], a code for *drive sb/sth + adjective*, does not feature either in the list of codes on the inside back cover or in their explanation in the front matter, where only [VP22] (*verb x direct object x adjective*) is presented (OALDCE3: xxxviii). By contrast, [VP19] for *hate sb/sth doing sth*, mentioned above, appears in the explanatory sections only in three forms: [VP19A], [VP19B] and [VP19C], distinguished largely on the basis of meaning; [VP19A] goes with verbs which indicate physical perception, [VP19B] –

the assignment of codes to the selected patterns. As can be seen from Table 8, the verbs which represent the same syntactic structure are usually accompanied by the same code. However, there are exceptions, which often result from code subcategorization. The copular verbs *become* and *seem* followed by an adjectival subject complement are given different codes: [VP2D] (*verb x adjective / noun / pronoun*) and [VP4D] (*seem / appear x (to be) x adjective / noun*), respectively (OALDCE3: xxx-xxxi). Obviously, the latter code is reserved for *seem* and *appear*. Likewise, [VP1] (*be x subject complement / adjunct*) can be used with the copula *to be*, and [VP24C] (*have/get x direct object x past participle*) – with the causative *have* and *get* (OALDCE3: xxix, xxxviii). Strangely enough, [VP24A] and [VP24B] designate essentially the same pattern as [VP24C]. However, while [VP24A] (*verb x direct object x past participle*) has no restrictions on use, [VP24B] (*have x direct object x past participle*) applies when the verb "*have* is used … to indicate what the subject of the sentence experiences, undergoes or suffers ... or what is held or possessed", e.g., *I've recently had my appendix removed* (OALDCE3: xxxviii).[57] Akkerman (1989: 72-73) rightly considers the use of codes for specific verbs quite superfluous, since they are usually specifications of one, main pattern. If there is no grammatical difference, there seems to be no reason to introduce semantic subcategories of a code. To illustrate, [VP18A] (*verb x noun or pronoun x infinitive*), shown in the table with the verb *see sb/sth do sth*, might be expected also for *let* in the same pattern. Yet, *let sb/sth do sth* is accompanied by [VP18B] (*verb x noun or pronoun x infinitive*), since [VP18A] can be used only with verbs which indicate physical perception, while [VP18B] – with those which do not (OALDCE3: xxxvi).[58] Overall, such semantically motivated subdivisions in the system of codes in OALDCE3 make the already complex and

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with those which do not. [VP19C], in turn, means that the verb can be followed by a possessive. Since, irrespective of these distinctions, they all stand for the string: *verb x noun or pronoun x -ing form of the verb* (OALDCE3: xxxvii), [VP19] was accepted as adequate.

[57] The verb *find* in the pattern *find sb/sth -ed participle* should be coded [VP24A] rather than [VP22] (*verb x direct object x adjective*) (OALDCE3: xxxviii). See also section 1.4.2.1.

[58] It is worth mentioning that [VP18C] (*have x noun or pronoun x infinitive*) represents the same pattern, but applies only to the verb *have* when it means *wish*, *experience* or *cause* (OALDCE3: xxxvi).

elaborate coding scheme even more complicated. No wonder, then, that they met with criticism.

For example, Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 62), who claim that coding systems should rest solely on syntactic principles, consider verb codes in OALDCE3 "unnecessarily complicated". Hanks (2008a: 96) argues in a similar vein that semantic subclassifications render the system of codes in OALDCE3 much less accessible and usable. Conversely, Hunston and Francis (2000: 5-6) view semantic subdivisions of verb codes as a token of Hornby's concern with meaning and pattern. They suspect that in this way Hornby tried to link patterns and meaning to show that some verbs occur in a given pattern only when they have a particular meaning.

Semantic criteria are not the only ones which underpin code subdivisions in OALDCE3. Many codes are split because of transformational differences between patterns. Table 8 shows that passivization is such a transformational criterion. [VP6A], assigned to *believe* and *catch*, as well as [VP6B], which goes with *have* and *lack*, represent the same pattern: *verb x noun or pronoun*. Yet, conversion to the passive voice is possible for the verbs accompanied by [VP6A], but not by [VP6B] (OALDCE3: xxxii).[59] Another example is furnished by the codes for *envy sb sth* – [VP12C] (*verb x noun or pronoun x noun or pronoun*) and *offer sb sth* – [VP12A] (*verb x indirect object x direct object*). The codes convey information on differences in dative alternation (Boguraev – Briscoe 1989: 106); the patterns represented by [VP12C], in contrast to those coded [VP12A], cannot be converted into structures with a direct object, the preposition *to* and a prepositional object (OALDCE3: xxxiv). The subcodes created on the basis of transformational differences are rightly criticized for further increasing the complexity of the system, especially in view of the fact that in many cases the differences might well be treated in individual entries without recourse to additional subdivisions of codes (Cowie 1990b: 343, 2009: 409).[60]

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[59] GEW and OALDCE1-2 do not inform dictionary users that *have* and *lack* do not occur in the passive. Also, OALDCE3 is the only dictionary discussed so far where the prepositional object of *blame* is marked with the help of what Cowie (1999b: 100-101) calls "complement frames", i.e., *~sb (for sth); ~sth on sb*, positioned before the definition.

[60] Hunston and Francis (2000: 4-5) observe that explanations of codes in OALDCE3 are as a rule expressed by means of surface realizations rather than elements of structure. Sometimes, however, both categories of linguistic description are used, e.g., [VP12A] (*verb x indirect object x direct object*) and [VP12C] (*verb x noun or pronoun x noun or*

Overall, the organizational improvements introduced to the system of verb codes in OALDCE3 are said to have made the new framework "more systematic and more soundly based than the one it replaced" (Cowie: 1999a: 99). There is no doubt, however, that a great deal of complexity was added as well. The changes must also have made it difficult for dictionary users to form any associations between codes in consecutive editions and recognize, for example, that [VP11] in OALDCE2 corresponds to [VP9] in OALDCE3 (Hanks 2008a: 96). Needless to say, it was hard to associate the codes with a *that*-clause functioning as an object in the first place.

Unfortunately, the last reservation holds for verb codes in all the four dictionaries published before 1978, discussed above. Their opacity prevents drawing any immediate conclusions concerning verb complementation. The algebraic form of codes does not betray anything about either the structure of individual patterns or the broader categories, based on verb classification, which the patterns represent. As Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 19) put it, such verb codes "are in no way self-explanatory. It is impossible to work out the meanings of the codes by just looking at them". As a result, any similarities between patterns are impossible to detect, either. The codes discussed so far do nothing but reflect the ordering of patterns in the total scheme (Cowie 1999a: 100). The only way to figure out what a code means is to look it up in the outside matter. However, such coding systems are not only far from transparent. They are not mnemonic, either; there is nothing in the form of codes themselves which could make it possible to recall, rather than immediately realize, what a given code stands for. The systems, roundly criticized for the lack of transparency and mnemonic organization (Cowie 1984: 155, 1989: 590, 1990b: 343, Hanks 2008a: 96, Heath 1982: 97, Herbst 1996: 329, Strevens 1987: 78), demanded a lot of effort on the part of dictionary users. To understand them, "[c]onscientious teachers and learners must have spent many hours thumbing back to the front matter of

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pronoun). Yet, functional categories are relatively sparse. Cowie (1990b: 342) considers the lack of parallel functional and formal representations of verb constructions a "descriptive failing" and a manifestation of "inconsistency and incompleteness" in OALDCE3. Akkerman (1989: 73-74), in turn, finds linear sequences of functional and categorial notions mixed together, as in [VP24A] (*verb x direct object x past participle*), a reason for "some questionable verb patterns". Yet, in his view, syntactic functions rather than surface structures should be referred to in pattern representation in OALDCE3 (Akkerman 1989: 77).

the dictionary. Less conscientious users would have simply ignored them, thus failing to benefit from the important information … which they encapsulated" (Hanks 2008a: 96). Clearly, the absence of any mnemonic element in verb codes in the early pedagogical dictionaries of English made them very difficult to learn, which "no doubt deterred many students from even making the effort" (Cowie 1999a: 100).

Notwithstanding the limited pedagogical value of opaque codes, it should be remembered that they reflect verb classification on the basis of the kinds and order of grammatical structures in verb complementation, rather than transitivity only, as is the case in dictionaries for native speakers. They were an unquestionable achievement of Palmer and Hornby, who broke new ground in the representation of verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries of English. What is more, such codes were accurate and economical. Besides, as Hanks (2008a: 94) notes, it would be hard to overstate the importance of the insight into the patterned nature of usage, manifested in the codes under discussion, from the point of view of lexical and grammatical theory. In general, then, "[i]t is undoubtedly to the late A. S. Hornby that … dictionaries owe the greatest debt for it was his pioneering work, at first in collaboration with H. E. Palmer, that established sentence patterns as a fact of English grammar" (Heath 1982: 96). Likewise, Hunston and Francis (2000: 7) hold that

> [i]t would be difficult to overestimate Hornby's achievement … the amount of detailed observation … is impressive, and the priority given to pattern … represents a radical reinterpretation of grammar from the point of the user. It is perhaps an indication of the unusual quality of Hornby's work that it could be superseded only when technology gave us electronic corpora that allow the details missing from Hornby's classification to be fleshed out.

Nonetheless, as verb codes in the dictionaries discussed so far accounted for many fine syntactic (and semantic) distinctions, they are rightly considered useful checklists for lexicographers and a source of reference for grammarians investigating the syntactic behavior of English verbs, which, unfortunately, remained beyond the grasp of the ordinary dictionary user (Ellegård 1978: 236).[61] It cannot be doubted that the "vast treasure of in-

[61] In Ellegård's (1978: 236) view, this remark holds true also for codes in LDOCE1, discussed below.

formation" (Strevens 1987: 78) which the codes represent was largely inaccessible to average dictionary users.

It is also worth mentioning that apart from the form of codes, their distribution no doubt further hampered their accessibility. In OALDCE1-3, all codes which apply to a given verb sense are simply bunched together immediately before the definition, even if the sense allows many patterns. The fact that not all codes thus positioned are illustrated by means of examples makes correlating codes with examples quite challenging. The problem is compounded by the fact that examples are not always arranged in a matching order (Cowie 1999a: 46). Nonetheless, the distribution of codes in OALDCE1-3, because of its consistency, is seen as an improvement on that in GEW (Cowie 2009: 399), where a few codes are also placed together, but much less uniformly: after the explanation of meaning and, occasionally – after relevant examples. However, it seems that cramming a few codes before the definition was less beneficial to dictionary users than placing them, however inconsistently, after corresponding illustrative examples. Yet, the obvious limitation of the dictionaries published before 1978 was that "[a]bove all, the pressing need was not met for a fully mnemonic coding system" (Cowie 1999a: 99). An attempt to overcome this drawback was made in the dictionaries published thereafter.

1.4.3.1.2. Mnemonic

Some shortcomings of the early verb coding systems were partly compensated for in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4. On the one hand, the dictionaries feature mnemonic codes. On the other, however, like in OALDCE1-3, all the codes which describe verb patterning in a given sense are lumped together before the definition.[62] Table 9 gives details on the codes for the selected verb patterns in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4.

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[62] Commenting on the editorial decisions made in OALDCE4, Cowie (1990b: 346) acknowledges the need to set out codes and examples so that they can be seen as complementary. He argues that this aim can be achieved either by placing codes before appropriate examples, or by positioning them at the beginning of the (sub-)entry and arranging examples in the same order. The latter course was opted for in OALDCE4 because "[j]uxtaposing individual codes and examples would have meant either illustrating every pattern in every entry (surely an unattainable goal) or omitting reference to some patterns in some cases (surely an undesirable expedient)" (Cowie 1990b: 346).

Table 9. Mnemonic verb coding systems: LDOCE1 and OALDCE4

	Verb	**LDOCE1**	**OALDCE4**
I	arrive	IØ	I
	matter	IØ	I
Linking	become	L7	La
	seem	L7	La
	be	L1 (with nouns)	Ln
	prove	L (to be) 1	Ln
Monotransitive	believe	T1	Tn
	catch	T1	Tn
	have	Wv6; T1 no pass	Tn
	lack	T1	Tn no passive
	hope	T5a	Tf
	think	T5a	Tf
	confirm	T6a	–
	guess	T6a	Tw
	forget	T6b	Tw
	learn	T6b	Tw
	ask	T3	Tt
	decide	T3	Tt
	deny	T4	Tg
	enjoy	T4	Tg
	like	Wv6; V3	Tnt
	want	V3	Tnt
	hate	T4	Tsg
	risk	T4	–
Complex transitive	drive	X7	Cn·a
	keep	X7	Cn·a
	appoint	X (to be) 1	Cn·n
	name	X1	Cn·n
	see	X9	Tn·pr
	slip	X9	Tn·pr
	know	V3	Cn·t
	report	V3	Tnt
	let	V2	Cn·i
	see	V2	Tni
	hear	V4	Tng
	watch	V4	Tng
	find	~~Wv6; X7~~	~~Cn·a~~
	get	~~X7~~	~~Cn·a~~

	Verb	LDOCE1	OALDCE4
Ditransitive	envy	D1	Dn·n
	offer	D1 (to)	Dn·n
	blame	D1 + on/for	Tn·pr ~ sb (for sth)/~sth on sb
	warn	T1: (of, against)	Tn·pr ~ sb about/against sb/sth
	remind	D5	Dn·f
	tell	D5a	Dn·f
	ask	D6a	Dn·w
	inform	D6a	–
	advise	D6b	Dn·w
	teach	D6b	Dn·w
	advise	V3	Dn·t
	persuade	V3	Cn·t

It is immediately obvious that the codes in Table 9 are not just cross-references to explanatory sections. In each dictionary, a verb code consists of a verb symbol in capitals accompanied, where appropriate, by a number or/and lower case letters. The numbers and letters represent verb complementation.

The aim of lexicographers working on LDOCE1 was to create "a system which is easily remembered and requires no knowledge of grammar theory to be fully understood" (LDOCE1: viii). It was believed that the use of letters for readily identifiable descriptive labels was a way to attain this goal (Procter 1976: 315). Thus, [I] was chosen for intransitive verbs, [L] – for linking verbs, [T] – for transitive verbs with one object realized by a noun or a nounlike expression and [D] – for ditransitive verbs.[63]

[63] The basic categorization of verbs in LDOCE1 is modeled on *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972) by Quirk et al. However, the dictionary refers to precisely the same verb categories as a smaller grammar derived from this book, *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1975) by Leech and Svartvik (Procter 1976: 315). Yet, the term *ditransitive* does not occur in the dictionary front matter, where [D] is introduced, even though it appears in the grammar book by Leech and Svartvik (1975: 301). Thus, [D] might be explicit and easy to remember only for the dictionary users who approach the dictionary already fully conversant with the verb categorization in English. The dictionary explains that the symbol applies to verbs which are followed by two nouns, pronouns or nounlike expressions which "always represent (REFER TO) something else, not each other" (LDOCE1: xxix). Yet, the term *nounlike expression* itself is not clearly defined. Examples of nounlike expressions cited in LDOCE1 include *what to do, president, fool*. It is quite unlikely, then, that the ordinary dictionary user will deduce the nounlike char-

However, [X], which labels a verb with an object followed by a complement realized by a noun phrase, an adjective phrase or an adjunct (LDOCE1: xxxiii), is anything but mnemonic. The mnemonic value of [V] is also doubtful, as this letter tends to be associated with verbs in general, but in LDOCE1 it designates their category – verbs which need "a 2-part DIRECT OBJECT. The first part is a nounlike expression, and the second is an infinitive with or without *to*, an *ing* form or a past participle" (LDOCE1: xxxi). Thus, neither [X] nor [V] makes it possible to form instant associations with well-known verb classes.

It seems that the mnemonic symbol [C] for *complex transitive verbs* which take objects followed by non-infinitival and non-participial object complements could be used instead of [X].[64] By contrast, it is difficult to suggest a mnemonic equivalent of [V], which appears to cut across a few verb classes. Table 9 shows that codes for six complex transitive verbs with object complementation realized by an infinitive or a participle begin with [V], i.e., *know / report sb/sth to do sth* [V3]*, let / see sb/sth do sth* [V2] and *hear / watch sb/sth doing sth* [V4]. Besides, the ditransitive pattern *advise / persuade sb to do sth* is coded with the help of [V3] as well. The symbol [V] accompanies also the verb *want* and *like* in the monotransitive pattern *want / like sb/sth to do sth* [V3].[65] Yet, this use of [V] is not accidental. In crude terms, this symbol means that a verb takes an object followed by an infinitive or a participle of another verb, and can thus be seen as a mnemonic representation of the verb which follows the main verb. However, such an interpretation may be confusing, since [V] is associated not with the headword, but with an element in the verb complementation structure. Interestingly, Akkerman (1989: 69) observes a similar regularity in the use of [V]. In particular, he notes that [V3] is given to all verbs that fit the pattern: *verb x noun x to-infinitive*, thereby indicating only the surface structure, regardless of the underlying grammatical rela-

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acteristics common to all such examples. See Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 65) for similar reservations.

[64] The label *complex transitive* does not appear in the LDOCE1 explanatory material on codes, even though it is used in the grammar book by Leech and Svartvik (1975: 302). The absence of parallel labels in the dictionary is seen as a failure to draw fully and explicitly on the accepted model (Cowie 1999a: 109).

[65] It turns out that these two verbs were problematic also for Leech and Svartvik (1975: 301), who, discussing [V], note that "[*w*]*ant, like,* etc as in *He wants us to help* are better classed under [T3]." The role of numbers in codes is explained below.

tions, discussed in section 1.4.1. This is how Aarts (2004a: 373-374) tries to explain why linguists analyzing structures of the *verb x noun x to-infinitive* type "are really in a no-win situation" and have difficulty revealing the underlying relations:

> [t]he problems … for the analyses proposed in the literature could be said to stem from the fact that they are all formulated within a strictly Aristotelian (all-or-none) framework of thinking: the postverbal NP … is either a direct object within the matrix clause, or it is not, in which case it must be the subject of a subordinate clause. In actual fact, the postverbal NP displays both object-like characteristics (e.g. it can become the subject of a passive sentence, attracts accusative case, etc.), as well as subject-like characteristics (e.g. it has a thematic role to play with regard to the lower predicate, it can be realised as a dummy element, etc.). But it would violate Aristotelian principles to regard the postverbal NP as a direct object and a subject AT THE SAME TIME, and presumably for this reason an either-or choice is opted for in most accounts. We then arrive at the stalemate … where all solutions have problematic aspects.

Maybe it is precisely for such reasons that LDOCE lexicographers decided on this "non-committal approach" whereby any *verb x noun x to-infinitive* structures are subsumed under [V3] (Akkerman 1989: 69).

Table 9 shows that the codes for *like sb/sth to do sth* as well as *have sb/sth* are additionally accompanied by [Wv6]. This means that verbs are not used in the continuous form (LDOCE1: xxxiii), information which is anything but easy to associate with the code.[66]

Strangely enough, two different verb symbols, [D1] and [T1], represent in Table 9 the same ditransitive construction (*verb x object x prepositional object*) with *blame* and *warn*, respectively. This results probably from the obligatory nature of the prepositional object in the case of *blame*, as evidenced by the plus sign before the propositions + *on/for*, not enclosed in any brackets, and its optional character in the case of *warn*, indicated by the bracketed prepositions *(of, against)*. In the absence of any prepositional object, the verb functions as a monotransitive one, *warn sb/sth*, hence [T].

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[66] In fact, codes beginning with [W] are said to form a special group which falls outside the general system (Akkerman 1989: 67). This set is discussed also in section 1.4.3.2.2.

The mnemonic value of codes in LDOCE1 consists not only in the verb symbols which are easy to associate with specific verb categories, but also in numbers, occasionally followed by lower-case letters. The numbers are meant to make the system easy to remember since they have the same meaning regardless of the symbol which precedes them.[67] It is the one-to-one correspondence between a number and its meaning, independent of any other symbols in codes, that is considered the greatest advantage of the coding system and a memory aid (Procter 1976: 316). More specifically, the numerical information in LDOCE1 should be interpreted in the following way: [Ø] - no complement or object, [1] - one or two noun or pronoun objects or complements, [2] - a bare infinitive, [3] - a *to*-infinitive, [4] - an *-ing* form, [5] - a *that*-clause, [6] - a clause or a phrase introduced by a *wh*-word, [7] - an adjectival complement or a noun object followed by an adjectival complement, [8] - an *-ed* form, [9] - an obligatory adjunct, usually a phrase used adverbially (LDOCE1: xxxiii-xxxiv).[68]

The numbers, which show the type of environment in which a given headword can be found, resemble syntactic frames or subcategorization properties of the lexical categories symbolized by capital letters in codes (Fontenelle 2009: 414). Such alphanumeric information in a code is considered a highly innovative feature of the dictionary, which thus specifies the syntactic environment in which a given lexical item in a given sense can function. In fact, codes in LDOCE1 are "doubly articulated" (Boguraev – Briscoe 1989: 93). Their double articulation means that "[w]hile the second element corresponds to the realization of a given phrase, the first part of the code, the letter, corresponds to a major part of speech and emphasizes the sameness of syntactic function, which can in turn be broken down into very general subclasses" (Fontenelle 2009: 415). The feature proved to be exceptionally useful in natural language processing and was hailed "a revolutionary way of describing the syntactic valency of verbs, nouns and adjectives", which had not been described so comprehensively before (Fontenelle 2009: 416, 429, 434). It also made it possible to use the electronic version of LDOCE1, the first large computerized dictionary of English, in research into the distribution of codes and their

[67] The issue resurfaces in section 1.4.3.2.2.

[68] Of these, only [8] does not appear in the LDOCE1 codes in Table 9.

relation to other elements of the microstructure (Cowie 1999a: 116, Fontenelle 2009: 421-422).

The system of lowercase letters in LDOCE1 provides more details on verb complementation, such as the status of complementizers, adverbs and prepositions in verb constructions (Boguraev – Briscoe 1989: 91). Yet, the letters usually perform different roles depending on which number they follow in codes. Even the modest sample of codes in Table 9 illustrates the variability. For example, in [5a], [a] suggests that the word *that* is optional in the following *that*-clause (*hope* and *think*). However, in [6a] (*confirm* and *guess*) it implies that a *wh*-word introduces a finite clause, rather than a full infinitive, in which case [6b] is required (*forget* and *learn*). Contrary to what might be expected, in [5b], [b] does not denote an obligatory *that*, but points to the possibility of the use of the proform *so* or its negative counterpart *not* with the verb (LDOCE1: xxxiv-xxxv).[69] The lowercase letters permitted LDOCE1 to codify a larger number of syntactic structures than OALDCE3. Some information they convey, e.g., the omission of *that*, is not formally presented in OALDCE3, where it can only be inferred from examples (Akkerman 1989: 75).

Table 9 reveals another area of lexicographic presentation where LDOCE1 is said to have broken fresh ground (Cowie 1999a: 110), i.e., labels supplying additional information on passivization. The label *no pass*, like the one which goes with the monotransitive *have*, is a clear improvement on the transformational subdivision of codes in OALDCE3 which served the same purpose.

Overall, the use of symbols which have the same meaning irrespective of the context in which they occur can be seen as an aid to their retention. By the same token, context-dependent symbols hinder recall. Even though the latter are also present in LDOCE1, the dictionary verb coding scheme is, as Ellegård (1978: 235) rightly notes, superior to that in OALDCE3 since it has more structure and less redundancy. The verb coding system in LDOCE1 is considered grammatically sounder, more clearly structured and more lucid than the one in OALDCE3 (Akkerman 1989: 77). Lexicographers working on LDOCE1 are esteemed for their development of "a grammar coding system capable of representing in compact form a non-

[69] Only [c], which accompanies [5], always has the same meaning; it indicates that the verb may be used either with *should* or in the infinitive form as a subjunctive (LDOCE1: xxxv).

trivial amount of information, usually to be found only in large descriptive grammars of English (such as Quirk *et al.*, 1985)" (Boguraev – Briscoe 1989: 90). It even proved sufficiently detailed and accurate to allow the application of natural language processing systems (Boguraev – Briscoe 1989: 116). Yet, the coding system in LDOCE1, more systematic and more consistent, but no less concise than the one in OALDCE3 (Akkerman 1989: 79), is not carefully tailored to users' needs. As it brings a wide range of complementation patterns within a systematic framework, it has simply become "overelaborate … liable to defeat all but the most sophisticated and determined user" (Cowie 1999a: 108). In fact, it is even considered more impenetrable than OALDCE3 (Hanks 2008a: 104). While the system cannot be denied some mnemonic value indeed, it is anything but transparent. This limitation justifies the comment made by Hausmann and Gorbahn (1989: 55), who consider the grammatical coding in LDOCE1 "an innovation which started out on the wrong foot". Unfortunately, breathing some mnemonic value into the system of codes, lexicographers failed to make it fully and readily intelligible. LDOCE1 codes, economical in form and logical as they are, remain far from immediately comprehensible to ordinary dictionary users; they have to be studied and revised to be understood. In reality, both students and teachers reported problems with figuring out what they mean (Fontenelle 2009: 417). They were even said to be too complicated to be ever used by many learners (Moulin 1999: 185).[70] Overall, the "impressively systematic" (Cowie 1990a: 688) and sound linguistic description of verb complementation by means of codes in LDOCE1 was far from perfectly intelligible and usable.

Reservations similar to those presented above concern verb codes in OALDCE4, reviewed to make up for the shortcomings of the previous editions. It was hoped that revised verb codes would be more self-explanatory and easy to remember, so that it should be possible for the user to learn them in a short time (Cowie 1990b: 343-344). As a matter of fact, the redesign of the system was to meet three aims. Apart from making codes economical and readily understandable, it was to give greater prominence to functional differences between post-verbal elements as well as improve the layout of the explanatory section (Cowie 1999a: 154).

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[70] Interestingly enough, Heath (1982: 97) admitted that using LDOCE1 for three years, he was familiar enough with its codes to refer to the outside matter quite infrequently, whereas after twelve years he was still not sure of even half of the codes in the early editions of OALDCE.

To represent verb patterning faithfully and mnemonically, but with the help of a simpler notation than in OALDCE1-3, symbols for verb classes and lowercase letters, sometimes separated by the raised dot (·), were used. As shown in Table 9, five major verb classes are designated by mnemonic symbols: [I] – intransitive verbs, [L] – linking verbs, [T] – transitive verbs, [C] – complex transitive verbs and [D] – double transitive verbs.[71] Table 9 reveals that the selected intransitive, linking and monotransitive verbs are assigned codes which begin with [I], [L] and [T], respectively. However, the coding of the other two classes is much less consistent. The complex transitive verbs in Table 9 are coded [C] or [T] in equal measure. Interestingly, even verbs which represent the same pattern are assigned to different classes in codes. *Know* and *report* in *know / report sb/sth to do sth* are coded in the dictionary as [C] and [T], respectively. This is also the case with *let* [C] and *see* [T] in the construction *let / see sb do sth*, discussed in section 1.4.2.1. The confusion concerns not only the complex transitive category, but also the ditransitive one. *Persuade* [C] and *advise* [D], both in the same ditransitive pattern *persuade / advise sb to do sth*, are a case in point. Unlike in LDOCE1, the presence of a verb form in the pattern of the main verb cannot be a reason for the assignment of the different verb symbols, since an infinitive features in all these pairs. Such inconsistencies in the symbolic representation of verb classes in codes are not only difficult to account for – they are downright surprising, since the categorization of verbs in OALDCE4 is based on that by Quirk et al. (1985) (Cowie 1999a: 155), reflected in Table 9 as well.

The extra material on codes in the back matter suggests an explanation in the case of *let* and *see*, cited in the sections describing [Cn.i] and [Tni], respectively (OALDCE4: 1564, 1567). It transpires that only seven verbs: *watch, hear, see, feel, notice, overhear* and *observe* are coded [Tni] in the dictionary. All of them are perception verbs. Likewise, only *make, have, let* and *help* can be assigned [Cn.i]. They specify "what the object is made or allowed to do" (OALDCE4: 1567). The distinction between the two

[71] In the dictionary, transitive verbs are defined as verbs followed by a direct object, which refers to the entity affected by the action of the verb. Complex transitive ones require a direct object and a complement which provides further information about the object. Double transitives, in turn, need a direct object and an indirect object, which refers to the person who receives something or benefits from an action (OALDCE4: 1555).

codes is thus semantic; they represent the same complex transitive construction, as in *let / see sb do sth*. Unfortunately, finding the rationale behind the assignment of codes to *persuade / advise sb to do sth* as well as *know* / *report sb/sth to do sth* is more difficult, and will be ventured only when the other components of verb codes in OALDCE4 have been discussed.

In an attempt to make verb codes mnemonic, the representation of constituent classes in OALDCE4 proved to be more problematic than the choice of verb class symbols (Cowie 1990b: 344). Eventually, a set of abbreviations (lowercase letters) was decided on for phrase and subordinate clause types found in verb complementation patterns. All of them represent only formal categories. It was believed that "the meanings of the letters (n = noun, a = adjective, etc), can be easily learnt, so that within a short time a learner should be able to recall patterns simply by looking at their codes" (LDOCE4: 1555). Unfortunately, not all the lowercase letters in OALDCE4 codes are transparent enough. Aarts (1991a: 573) remarks that [*f*] for the finite *that*-clause, [*w*] for the *wh*-clause, [*g*] for the *ing* participle, [*s*] for the genitive of nouns, [*i*] for the bare infinitive and [*t*] for the *to*-infinitive can raise objections in view of the fact that they are not standard abbreviations for the structures they represent. While the transparency of some of the symbols is debatable indeed, there should be no doubt as to their mnemonic value. As Aarts (1991b: 222) points out, once they are understood by dictionary users, they are unlikely to be quickly forgotten. This, in turn, saves reference to the explanatory sections of the dictionary. In this regard, OALDCE4 is a significant improvement on OALDCE3, devoid of any mnemonics.

In general, verb codes in OALDCE4, like those in LDOCE1, are not completely transparent, but they have a mnemonic value. As they are not built around totally opaque numbers and lowercase letters, they appear to be more lucid than those in LDOCE1.[72] Nonetheless, in contrast to LDOCE1, codes for complex transitive and ditransitive verbs contain the raised dot (·), which serves to separate the object from its complementation as well as the indirect and direct objects (OALDCE4: 1555). Yet, there appears to be no need to use the dot to mark such distinctions, since they are already implied by the respective verb class symbols. As Cowie

[72] It is worth noting that OALDCE4 is the first pedagogical dictionary where codes are rid of the numeric component.

(1990b: 345) points out, verb categories are defined syntactically, so the verb symbol in a code clearly signals the number and function of the post-verbal elements.

In the section of the dictionary titled *Using the Dictionary: A Detailed Guide to the Entries*, it is stressed that OALDCE4 codes convey information on verb patterning on two descriptive levels: simple and structural (OALDCE4: 1555). At the basic level, at which only parts of speech, phrase or clause types matter to dictionary users, a code such as [Dn·pr] is interpreted as a string of verb, noun and prepositional phrase. When read at the structural level, where syntactic functions come into play, the same code means that the verb takes a direct object and an indirect object. Also, at the simple level, [Dn·t], [Cn·t] and [Tnt] indicate that a verb is followed by a noun and a *to*-infinitive (Cowie 1990b: 345). It is only at the structural level that a distinction can be drawn between the superficially identical patterns. Then, the following interpretations come into play: a double transitive verb which requires an indirect object and a direct one – [Dn·t], a complex transitive verb followed by a direct object and its complement – [Cn·t], a monotransitive verb with a direct object – [Tnt].[73]

Coherence between the two levels of description, structural (functional) and simple (formal), is emphasized by the layout of the explanatory section. In any pattern description, both clause functions and constituent classes are indicated by default. Exceptionally, when there are two post-verbal elements, the class of only the second one is identified, the first one being always a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase.

At this point it is advisable to return to the superficially identical ditransitive structures with *persuade* [Cn·t] and *advise* [Dn·t] *(sb to do sth)* as well as the complex transitive patterns with *report* and *know (sb/sth to do sth)*, coded [Tnt] and [Cn·t], respectively. In fact, the problem boils down to the distinction between three different codes: [Dn·t], [Cn·t] and [Tnt]. As Bolinger (1990: 143) explains, "[Dn·t] differs from [Tnt] in not accepting the passive [i.e., the passive infinitive] (**They advised Peter to be taken*), and it differs from [Cn·t] in calling for the *to* (*How come he did it? - They advised him to*). Although we can say *They advised him* here, its relevance to the question is indirect". By contrast,

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[73] Surprisingly enough, the raised dot features not only in codes beginning with [C] or [D]. As can be seen in Table 9, in [Tn·pr] (*see*, *slip*, *blame* and *warn*) it also separates a direct object from an adjunct realized by a prepositional phrase. Unfortunately, its role in such a context is not accounted for by the dictionary.

when *persuade*, coded [Cn·t], is seen in this context, the same question, *How come he did it?*, can safely be answered *They persuaded him*. In this respect, the assignment of [Cn·t] to *persuade* is justified, and so is [Dn·t] to *advise*.

The semantic description of [Cn·t] proves the point as well; the code goes with verbs which describe "what the object is made or helped to do or be", as in: *The reporter pressed her to answer* (OALDCE: 1566). Apart from *press*, the verbs *force, help* and *declare* are cited in the explanatory material as examples of this category. Bolinger (1990: 142) observes that with the exception of *declare*, the dictionary explanation implies some kind of causative as the common semantic denominator of the verbs coded [Cn·t]. Apparently, *persuade* implies causation as well. *Declare*, by contrast, is a rather poor example according to Bolinger (1990: 142), because only its performative sense is relevant to causation, i.e., *I declare you the winner (you are hereby the winner)*, which, however, does not require the infinitive. He admits that the infinitive can appear: *I declare you (to be) the winner*, but also notes that *I declare you to be an enemy of the state* is declarative, not performative, and hence not causative.

Likewise, *know* in the pattern *know sb to be sth*, exemplified by *We knew her to be honest* (OALDCE4: *know*) and coded [Cn·t], does not seem to fit into the category represented by the code, either, since the verb is not causative. Bolinger (1990: 143) finds other misfits. As he notes, *consider* is given [Cn·t] only on the strength of *We consider this (to be) very important*. *Hold* and *judge* get the same treatment, although the verbs are not causative, either. Bolinger (1990: 143) also pays attention to *know sb to be sth* and finds out that in the same pattern, *understand* (*understand sb to be sth*) is given [Cn·t], but *believe*, with the example *They believed him to be insane*, is rightly labeled [Tnt]. Table 9 makes it possible to add *report* [Tnt], accompanied by the example: *The poll reported Labour to be leading* (OALDCE4: *report2a*), to Bolinger's list to further prove the point about the semantic distinction between [Cn·t] (causative) and [Tnt] (non-causative).

Nonetheless, as Bolinger (1990: 142) himself admits,

> there's a question as to how relevant the semantic definition is. In terms of syntax, *Cn·t* needs to be looked at in comparison with *Tnt* and *Dn·t*. In *Tnt* there is no independent relationship between the *T* and the *n* on the one hand and the *T* and the *t* on the other: the entire infinitive phrase is the object of the *T*, with the *n* functioning only as subject of the in-

> finitive. *Cn·t*, however, has such an independent relationship (hence the dot), and the *n* is the direct object of *C*. *Dn·t* is the same except that the *n* is the indirect object of *D*.

Bolinger (1990: 145) comes to the inescapable conclusion that the problem lies in indistinct borders between classes, which materializes even in the small selection of verbs in the present study. As he puts it, "[n]owhere more than here [i.e., the grammar of verbs] is one quite so aware of the relative seamlessness of meaning and the degree of arbitrariness one must adopt in trying to describe it in grammatical terms. This naturally leads to inconsistencies, as one is compelled to choose one criterion over another" (Bolinger 1990: 140). The odds are that *know sb to be sth* coded [Cn·t] is an instantiation of such divergences.

OALDCE4, like LDOCE1, employs the label [no passive] to signal restrictions on passivization, as shown for *lack* in Table 9. However, McCorduck (1993: 52) sees the treatment of the passive in OALDCE4 as a continuation of the OALDCE3 practice whereby the (im)possibility of the passive transformation is signaled not for individual verbs, but for individual patterns.[74] For example, [Tt] and [Tg] have no corresponding passive constructions (OALDCE4: 1562-1563). Table 9 shows that *decide to do sth* and *enjoy doing sth* are assigned the respective codes. Nonetheless, Bolinger (1990: 141) demonstrates that the verbs do passivize: *It has been decided to hold the meeting tomorrow* and *Golfing is enjoyed by the rich*, although he admits that in the latter case a lot depends on how noun-like the [g] part of the pattern is (here: *golfing*). The drawback of associating passivization with patterns rather than verbs is that there are verbs which belong to certain patterns, but they do not behave like other verbs with respect to the passive transformation (McCorduck 1993: 52). It is then necessary to indicate the exceptional properties of such verbs. Nonetheless, neither *decide* nor *enjoy* is additionally labeled as passivizable in OALDCE4.

The use of mnemonic symbols instead of arbitrary numbers, coupled with reducing the number of verb codes to 32, earned OALDCE4 a mnemonic system, but lost it some amount of detail and accuracy. For example, Table 9 shows that *guess* followed by a finite *wh*-clause object and *forget* with a *wh*-infinitive object are coded [Tw]. In OALDCE3, in turn,

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[74] Transformational criteria for pattern subdivisions in OALDCE3 are discussed in section 1.4.3.1.1.

the verbs are coded [VP10] and [VP8], respectively (Table 8). Likewise, the information conveyed in OALDCE3 by [VP21] and [VP20], which bring out the same difference in the type of direct object in ditransitive patterns, is in OALDCE4 given by [Dn·w] (*ask* and *teach*). On the other hand, however, OALDCE4 lists the prepositions which *blame* and *warn* allow, while its predecessor did it only for the former verb.

In conclusion, it is worth referring to Cowie's (1990b: 347) view that learners' needs are best served by a verb coding scheme which should be easy to memorize and systematic so as to enable users to trace connections between patterns. Obviously, OALDCE4 verb codes meet these criteria. However, in a verb coding system in a learners' dictionary, economy and informativeness need to be balanced against transparency and usability. Unfortunately, the balance was not yet struck and the OALDCE4 coding system remained "unnecessarily complicated" (Aarts 1991a: 576).

The verb codes discussed so far, i.e., neither transparent nor mnemonic in GEW and OALDCE1-3 as well as still largely opaque but mnemonic in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4, represent complementation patterns in fine detail and take up little space. Economical in form as they are, such codes are largely incomprehensible, or even arcane, to dictionary users, since their form does not reveal (all) the information they embody. The syntactic patterns which the codes stand for, in their entirety or in part, can be fully comprehended only with the help of the outside matter, where the codes or the symbols they consist of are explained. However, the algebraic appearance of codes put off many dictionary users, and consulting explanatory sections proved too time-consuming and irksome (Cowie 1984: 155). In practice, code explanations were hardly ever read. In Béjoint's (1981) survey, the vast majority of respondents, who used mainly LDOCE1 and OALDCE3, admitted that they did not take any interest in the explanations of codes in the dictionaries. In fact, about 90 percent of the subjects ignored the outside matter. At the same time, however, most of them acknowledged the need for grammar, but they never used syntactic codes to satisfy it (Béjoint 1981: 215-216). Worse yet, Herbst's survey (as cited in McCorduck 1993: 22) revealed that German students of English usually were not even aware of the fact that codes in OALDCE3 and LDOCE1 concerned verb syntax. Comparable ignorance of verb codes was brought to light by another study conducted at two German universities. It turned out that most subjects did not know that OALDCE3, which they used at school, featured verb codes (Herbst –

Stein 1987: 120). The situation might be partly explained by insufficient attention paid to dictionary use at school. The majority of in-service teachers surveyed in West's study (cited in Nesi 2000: 73) admitted that they had never even attempted to introduce their students to the system of codes either in OALDCE3 or LDOCE1. However, Herbst (1989a: 1383) is probably right claiming that the main reason for the neglect of codes in OALDCE and LDOCE1 was the need to refer to the outside matter to decipher them.

It should not be surprising that arbitrary and obscure grammar codes were found unfathomable and daunting by many dictionary users. In all likelihood, they also were too elaborate, as they often accounted for subtle syntactic details. For this reason, the move towards mnemonic representation of verb patterns in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4 is a positive, user-oriented development. On top of that, in the latter dictionary, some verb codes bear all the hallmarks of transparency, even though they pass over some syntactic subtleties. In this regard, they can be seen as an improvement on the alphanumeric codes in LDOCE1.

The analysis of verb codes in GEW, OALDCE1-4 and LDOCE1 reveals a reason why, as Béjoint (2010: 217) puts it, "[t]he pages of old dictionaries looked cluttered and difficult to read", although it needs to be remembered that, as he hastens to add, "they can only be judged by the standards of their time". Rapidly developing research into dictionary use threw light on foreign language learners' difficulty in handling short and not yet fully transparent grammatical codes. Increasing competition on the market must have provided an additional incentive to reconsider coding systems, make up for deficiencies in the earlier editions and learn from competitors' mistakes (Stein 2002: 88-89). Overall, there seemed to be a shared interest in making coding systems more transparent for foreign learners.

1.4.3.1.3. Transparent

1.4.3.1.3.1. Functional-formal

The next stage in the development of verb coding systems is marked by a shift towards transparency. In transparent coding systems, the meaning of a code is immediately obvious to dictionary users, who should be able to recognize the verb complementation pattern only by looking at the code

(Herbst 1996: 329). Reference to explanatory sections becomes superfluous. Still, transparent verb codes in pedagogical dictionaries are by no means uniform. Considering the symbols which they consist of, they are usually divided into two basic categories: functional-formal and formal (Herbst 1996: 329, Dziemianko 2002: 221, 2006: 15).[75] On the one hand, there are codes where in the representation of verb complementation patterns reference is made to both syntactic functions and formal categories of linguistic description. On top of that, basic verb classes are then usually distinguished. Such codes feature in LDOCE2, COBUILD1, CIDE and CALD1-3. On the other hand, there are codes where the structure of verb complementation is rendered in formal categories only, without any reference to sentence functions. Typically, verb classes are not given distinctive symbols; there is one verb symbol [V], which is only sometimes accompanied by some indication of verb category. Formal coding systems are employed in COBUILD2-6 and OALDCE5-7. Since functional-formal verb codes developed first, they open the following discussion. Relevant codes for the selected verbs are collated in Table 10.

[75] While, as will be shown below, symbols for formal categories usually predominate also in the functional-formal category, the label *functional-formal* (Dziemianko 2006) emphasizes the contrast with purely formal systems.

Table 10. Transparent functional formal verb coding systems: LDOCE2, COBUILD1, CIDE and CALD1-3

	Verb	**LDOCE2**	**COBUILD1**	**CIDE**	**CALD1**	**CALD2**	**CALD3**
I	arrive	I	V: USU + A	I	I	I	I
I	matter	I	V	I	I	I	I
L	become	L	V + C	L	L	L	L
L	seem	L	V + C	[L (+ to be)]	L	[L]	L
L	be	[L] [+ n]	V + C	L	L	L	L
L	prove	[L] [+ adj/n]	V + C	(obj) [L + (to be) + n /adj]	[L + (to be)]	[L + (to be)]	[L + (to be)]
M	believe	T	V + O	(obj) [T]	T	T	T
M	catch	T	V + O	(obj) [T]	[I or T]	[I or T]	[I OR T]
M	have	T	V + O	obj [T]	T	T	T
M	lack	T	V ERG: IF V, THEN USU CONT	obj [T]	T	T	T
M	hope	[T ~~obj~~] [+ (that)]	V + REPORT-CL	[+ (that) clause]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[I OR T] [+ (that)]
M	think	[T] [+ (that)]	V + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ (that) clause]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[I OR T] [+ (that)]
M	confirm	[T] [+ wh-]	V + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ wh- word]	[T] [+ question word]	[T] [+ question word]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD]
M	guess	[T] [+ wh-]	V + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ wh-word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD]
M	forget	–	V + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ wh-word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD]

	Verb	LDOCE2	COBUILD1	CIDE	CALD1	CALD2	CALD3
M	learn	[T] [+ wh-]	V + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ wh-word]	[I or T] [+ question word + to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ question word + to infinitive]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD + to INFINITIVE]
M	ask	[T] [+ to-v]	–	(obj) [+ to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I OR T] [+ to INFINITIVE]
M	decide	[T] [+ to-v]	V + to-INF	(obj) [+ to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I OR T] [+ to INFINITIVE]
M	deny	[T] [+ v-ing]	V + -ING	(obj) [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ -ing VERB]
M	enjoy	[T] [+ v-ing]	V + -ING	(obj) [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ v-ing]	[T] [+ -ing VERB]
M	like	[T] [+ obj + to-v]	V + O + to-INF	(obj) [T + obj + to infinitive]	[+ obj + to infinitive]	[+ obj + to infinitive]	[+ OBJ + to INFINITIVE]
M	want	[T] [+ obj + to-v]	V + O + to-INF	(obj) [T + obj + to infinitive]	[T] [+ obj + to infinitive]	[T] [+ obj + to infinitive]	[T] [+ OBJ + to INFINITIVE]
M	hate	[T] [+ obj + v-ing]	–	(obj) [+ obj + v-ing]	[I or T] [+ v-ing]	[I or T] [+ v-ing]	[I OR T] [+ -ing VERB]
M	risk	–	–	–	–	–	–
C	drive	[T] [+ obj + adj]	V + O + C	–	–	–	–
C	keep	[T] [+ obj + adj]	V + O + C(ADJ)	(obj) [T + obj + adj]	[T] [+ obj + adj]	[T] [+ obj + adj]	[T] [+ OBJ + ADJ]
C	appoint	[T] [+ obj + n]	V + O + C	~~T~~	~~T~~	~~T~~	~~T~~
C	name	[T] [+ obj + n]	V + O + O/NAME	(obj) [T] [+ obj + n]	[T] [+ two objects]	[T] [+ two objects]	[T] [+ TWO OBJECTS]
C	see	[T + obj + adv/prep]	V + O + A	obj [T always + adv/prep]	[T usually + adv or prep]	[T usually + adv or prep]	[T USUALLY + ADV/PREP]

	Verb	LDOCE2	COBUILD1	CIDE	CALD1	CALD2	CALD3
C	slip	[T] [+ obj + adv/prep]	V + O + A	~~T~~	[I or T; usually + adv or prep]	[I or T; usually + adv or prep]	[I OR T, USUALLY + ADV/PREP]
C	know	[T] [+ obj + to-v]	-	(obj) [T + obj + to be n/adj]	[I or T] [+ obj + to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ obj + to infinitive]	[I OR T] [+ OBJ + to INFINITIVE]
C	report	[T] [+ obj + to-v; pass.]	V + O + to-INF: USU PASS	(obj) [T + obj + to infininitive]	be reported to be/do sth	be reported to be/do sth	be reported to be/do sth
C	let	[T] [+ obj + ~~to~~-v]	V + O, USU + INF, NO PASS	obj [T] [+ obj + infinitive without to]	[T + obj + infinitive without to]	[T + obj + infinitive without to]	[T + INFINITIVE WITHOUT to]
C	see	[T] [+ obj + ~~to~~-v]	~~V + O: USU+A~~	(obj) [T + obj + infinitive without to]	[I or T] [+ infinitive without to]	[I or T] [+ infinitive without to]	[I OR T] [+ INFINITIVE WITHOUT to]
C	hear	[T] [+ obj + v-ing]	~~V + O~~	(obj) [+ obj + v-ing]	[I or T] [+ obj + v-ing]	[I or T] [+ obj + v-ing]	[I OR T] [+ OBJ + -ing VERB]
C	watch	[T] [+ obj + v-ing]	~~V + O~~	(obj) [T + obj + v-ing]	[I or T] [+ obj + v-ing]	[I or T] [+ obj + v-ing]	[I OR T] [+ OBJ + -ing VERB]
C	find	~~T [+ obj + adj]~~	~~V + O + C/A~~	~~[T + obj + n/adj]~~	~~[T] [+ obj + n or adj]~~	~~[T] [+ obj + noun or adj]~~	~~[T] [+ OBJ + ADJ]~~
C	get	[T] [+ obj + v-ed]	V + O + PAST PART	obj [obj + v-ed]	[T] [+ past participle]	[T] [+ past participle]	[T] [+ PAST PARTICIPLE]

	Verb	LDOCE2	COBUILD1	CIDE	CALD1	CALD2	CALD3
D	envy	[T] [+ obj(i) + obj(d)]	V + O + O	obj [T] [+ two objects]	[T] [+ two objects]	[T] [+ two objects]	[T] [+ TWO OBJECTS]
D	offer	[T] [+ obj(i) + obj(d)]	V + O + O	(obj) [+ two objects]	[I or T] [+ two objects]	[I or T] [+ two objects]	[I OR T] [+ TWO OBJECTS]
D	blame	[T] [+ obj + on], [+ obj + for]	V + O: IF + PREP THEN for	~~T~~	~~T~~	~~T~~	~~T~~
D	warn	T (of, against)	V + O + A	~~T~~	~~[I or T]~~	~~[I or T]~~	~~[I or T]~~
D	remind	[T] [+ obj + that]	V + O, USU + of/about/REPORT-CL	obj [T] [+ obj + (that) clause]	[T] [+ (that)]	[T] [+ (that)]	[T] [+ (that)]
D	tell	[T] [+ obj + (that)]	V + O + REPORT-CL	(obj) [T + obj + (that) clause]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[I or T] [+ (that)]	[T] [+ OBJ + (that)]
D	ask	[T] [+ obj + wh-]	V + O + REPORT-CL	(obj) [T + obj + wh-word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD]
D	inform	[T] [+ obj + wh-]	V + O, USU + of/REPORT-CL	–	–	–	–
D	advise	[T] [+ obj + wh-]	V + O + REPORT-CL	(obj) [+ obj + wh-word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I or T] [+ question word]	[I OR T] [+ QUESTION WORD]
D	teach	[T] [+ obj + wh-]	V + O + REPORT-CL	–	–	–	–
D	advise	[T] [+ obj + to-v]	V + O + to-INF	(obj) [T + obj + to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I or T] [+ to infinitive]	[I OR T] [+ to INFINITIVE]
D	persuade	[T] [+ obj + to-v]	V + O + to-INF	obj [T] [+ obj + to infinitive]	[T] [+ to infinitive]	[T] [+ to infinitive]	[T] [+ to INFINITIVE]

In the table, square brackets reflect changes in the distribution of verb codes in the microstructure. In LDOCE2, CIDE and CALD1-3, codes are not lumped together before definitions, as was the case in the dictionaries discussed so far. A code appears before a definition only when it represents a syntactic property which is true for the whole verb sense. When a few patterns are possible, each of them is shown in a code placed next to examples – in CIDE after, and in LDOCE2 and CALD1-3 before the corresponding illustrative sentence(s).[76] In all the dictionaries under discussion, verb codes can be placed in the microstructure both before definitions, usually to indicate transitivity as such, and in the vicinity of examples, to show specific patterns. In LDOCE2 and CALD1-3, where, in contrast to CIDE, senses are numbered, a code appears before any sense distinctions are drawn, rather than immediately before each definition, provided that the syntactic property represented by the code holds for all the senses. Yet, even then, other codes are additionally interspersed among illustrative sentences.[77] Interestingly enough, in CIDE verb codes can be found in as many as three places in a single entry. Apart from those in the proximity of the definition and examples, *obj* or (*obj*) can additionally follow the headword. In Table 10, square brackets are used if coded information is given at more than one place in an entry, and they distinguish codes in different locations in the microstructure. In CIDE, codes are enclosed in square brackets also if *obj* or (*obj*) is given in the entry line.

In COBUILD1, unlike in the other dictionaries listed in Table 10, codes are not interspersed in the entry block. They are placed in the extra column alongside the entry. Such positioning of codes was to prevent interrupting the flow of information in the microstructure with abbreviations and symbols (COBUILD1: xvi). It was also hoped that it would assist navigation of long entries (Moon 2009: 453). The extra column attracted many favorable comments (Standop 1988: 387, Piotrowski 1988:

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[76] LDOCE2 is the first pedagogical dictionary which consistently alternates codes and examples. This is one of the reasons why Hausmann and Gorbahn (1989: 55) consider the microstructure in LDOCE2 "a model of compact clarity". However, as mentioned in section 1.4.3.1.1, codes were occasionally positioned next to examples already in GEW.

[77] CIDE implemented a peculiar policy of assigning one entry to one main meaning. In fact, the dictionary is firmly based on the semantic approach, rather than the formal one (Piotrowski 1997: 293, Akasu et al. 2005: 133, 178)). Instead of traditional polysemous entries, there are a number of smaller entries, each of which represents a separate meaning. This explains the lack of numbers to distinguish subsenses.

253). Seen as user-friendly and excellent (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 50), it was considered an effective means of increasing the clarity, accessibility and readability of the information supplied (Carter 1989a: 150, Carter 1989b: 32). It was also claimed to be instrumental in meeting foreign learners' demands (Herbst 1989a: 1383). Hailed as outstanding and helpful with regard to grammar, it was recognized as an essential navigation tool which could be easily browsed for specific syntactic constructions (Heuberger 2000: 63). However, Carter (1989b: 36-37) predicted that it could prove to be "in excess of its use and ahead of its users" and opted for "staged" grammatical information, which, in the form of codes interspersed in the microstructure, unfolds progressively as the dictionary user delves deeper into the entry. Nonetheless, he admitted that the extra column could be useful to teachers checking corrections (Carter 1989b: 36). Stein (2002: 89), in turn, criticized it for disjoining grammar and meaning, thereby frustrating the interdependence brought out in the other dictionaries by the positioning of codes in the proximity of explanatory information.[78]

Lexicographers working on COBUILD1, a dictionary based entirely on corpus analysis, were in reality perfectly aware of the relationship between grammar and meaning, even though they decided to dislodge codes from the entry block. As Sinclair (1987b: 109) notes, "[i]n nearly every case a structural pattern seemed to be associated with sense. Despite the broad range of material ... when the instances were sorted into senses a recurrent pattern emerged". In the extra column, verb senses are often accompanied by codes reflecting even a few typical patterns. Alternative components of the verb complementation structure are then separated by the slash [/], or different codes are listed and joined by the conjunction [OR]. Sometimes, both the slash an the conjunction can be found in one string, e.g., [V+A(on/ADV),V+O,OR V+O+A] (COBUILD1, *rap1*). Undoubtedly, assembling codes in the margin of the entry leaves the dictionary user to associate codes with relevant examples, which, because of the number and ordering of examples, might prove no less difficult than in OALDCE1-4 or LDOCE1.[79]

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[78] The actual usefulness of the extra column is discussed in section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

[79] To illustrate, the following examples are given at *forget1* in COBUILD1: *I never forget a face or a name ... she had forgotten how to ride a bicycle ... I shall never forget it ... I forget which now*. The extra column, in turn, shows this sequence of coded patterns: [V+ O/REPORT-CL/-ING]. More information on verb codes in the dictionary is

As already signaled above, most dictionaries listed in Table 10 offer symbols for different verb classes. In LDOCE2, CIDE and CALD1-3, there are symbols for intransitive [I], linking [L] and transitive [T] verbs.[80] Unlike in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4, the categories of transitive verbs are not distinguished, which contributes to the simplification of coding systems and has been assessed positively in the literature on the subject on the grounds that distinct symbols for monotransitive, ditransitive and complex transitive verbs needlessly complicate the coding apparatus (Aarts 1991b: 223). However, as will be shown below, assigning [T] to all transitive verbs is not devoid of problems, either. COBUILD1 represents an even more daring move forward inasmuch as it employs one verb symbol [V]. As the dictionary explains, "V is used in the grammar notes beside entries to mean 'verb'. Where V is used alone or is followed by a colon, the verb is intransitive and does not have an object" (COBUILD1: 1613). As shown in Table 10, the symbol can be modified to designate ergative verbs [V-ERG] (*lack*), where [V-ERG] serves "to describe verbs which are both transitive (V+O) and intransitive (V) in the same meaning" (COBUILD1: 1620).[81] In the present study, [V-ERG] was accepted as adequate for *lack*, even though the verb was selected to illustrate the simple monotransitive pattern *lack sth*. However, this pattern is inherent in the code for ergative verbs. Nonetheless, coding ergative verbs with the help of special codes is rightly seen as superfluous, provided that relevant examples showing the transitive and intransitive patterns of ergative verbs are supplied (Aarts 1991a: 572). As McCorduck (1993: 10) points out, the

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supplied below, but suffice it to say at this point that while the first two examples illustrate [V+O] and [V+REPORT-CL], respectively, the other two do not flesh out the code [V+ -ING]. Surprisingly, they correspond to the already illustrated patterns. It is also worth pointing out that codes in the extra column in COBUILD1 start in the same line as the definition and often run on in the next line as well. The fact that they are not on a level with examples might further discourage dictionary users from finding correspondences between these two sources of syntactic information.

[80] In CALD1-3 there are two other verb symbols: [M] for phrasal verbs with a movable particle and [R] for reflexive verbs. The former is also used in CIDE.

[81] More specifically, ergative verbs undergo transitivity alternation which entails a change in subject-verb relationship, e.g., *The door opened slowly [I]* and *Mary opened the door [T]*. Clearly, in the transitive construction, the object is the patient, and the subject – the agent. In the intransitive structure, by contrast, the patient occupies the subject position, while the semantic role of the agent is omitted (Allerton 1975: 236). Thus, the two patterns differ in semantic links between the subject and the verb.

term *ergative* most probably does not belong to the passive vocabulary of many Anglophones. Expecting it to be familiar to foreign learners of English might then be overoptimistic.

The use of one verb symbol instead of a few symbols for different verb classes appears to be a step in the right direction. For one thing, the terms *transitive* and *intransitive* are difficult for language learners and are often misinterpreted (Bogaards 1996: 305, Hunston 2004: 100). McCorduck (1993: 89) cites evidence that learners usually do not remember what *transitive* means, but they have no problems with comprehending the concept of verb plus object. For another, dictionary users typically do not look for information on verb classes. As Aarts (1991a: 572) puts it, "the reason why … symbols other than *V* are redundant is that students who want information about a verb are not interested in labels such as intransitive, monotransitive, ditransitive, etc. What they are interested in is the question 'By how many and what type of elements can this verb be followed?' In order to answer that question the dictionary requires only one verb symbol". As a rule, language learners not only do not know what [I], [L], [T], [D] or [C] stand for, but, worse yet, they do not want to check what the symbols mean (Aarts 1999: 23). Moreover, while [T] or [I] are efficient in terms of space, their informative value is limited. In Bogaards's (2003: 51) view, the use of single letters for the complicated categories of intransitive and transitive verbs cannot be very helpful. A transitive verb may be followed by a variety of elements, which means that [T] itself is not enough to capture what learners need to know about a particular verb. Additional information is still necessary, like in the case of [V]. Thus, [T] has hardly any advantage over [V] (Hunston 2004: 100). On top of that, the distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is often of no great help to students, since a vast number of English verbs share the characteristics of both these classes (Herbst 1996: 331). Apart from the foregoing arguments which follow from the user-centered approach, the analysis of codes below reveals, among other things, that it is not always clear what [T] actually represents. This, in turn, introduces a lot of confusion in verb codes and makes the representation of verb patterning inconsistent.

LDOCE2 editors acknowledge that "[t]he sophisticated grammar codes in the first edition of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1978) were well-received by those particularly interested in grammar, but many users found them difficult to remember" (LDOCE2: F9). The LDOCE1 coding system was thus reviewed to make it more transparent

(McCorduck 1993: 19). Abstract symbols were replaced by those whose meaning is immediately obvious to dictionary users. Letters for verb classes followed by numbers gave way to more space-consuming pattern representations. As a result, the number of codes was reduced and the whole system – simplified (Aarts 1991b: 221). LDOCE2 codes were said to be clear even to the grammatically uninitiated (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 55).[82]

The majority of symbols used in LDOCE2 verb codes denote word classes and clause types. The following surface-structure symbols feature in the dictionary codes in Table 10: [n], [adj], [adv/prep], [that], [wh-], [to-v], [~~to~~-v], [v-ing], [v-ed]. All of them are explicit and can be easily understood. However, the symbolic representation of the bare infinitive, i.e., [~~to~~-v], was criticized, though, admittedly, not because of problems with transparency, but because it might suggest that linguistic analysis presupposes the full infinitive in the underlying structure (Heath – Herbst 1988: 316). Yet, from the pedagogical point of view, [~~to~~-v] appears to be a perfectly appropriate way of indicating what is often called an infinitive without *to*. Notwithstanding, the system of verb codes in LDOCE2 is "not a thorough-going surface-structure scheme" (Cowie 1999a: 151), considering reference to the syntactic function of the object [obj] and two object types: indirect [obj(i)] and direct [obj(d)]. The last two symbols feature only in the ditransitive patterns in which both objects are realized by noun phrases, as illustrated in Table 10 by *envy / offer sb sth*, coded [T] [+ obj(i) + obj(d)]. By contrast, the complex transitive pattern *name / appoint sb sth*, even though superficially identical, is represented by [T] [+ obj + n]. In the absence of any complement symbol, it seems that providing consistent syntactic description on the functional level could not have been part of the editorial policy of LDOCE2.

Confusing the levels of form and function is no doubt one of the objections that can be raised to the system of verb codes in LDOCE2. However, pedagogical considerations justify this approach, allegedly much more helpful to dictionary users than a more consistent one, but centered on functional categories only, which presuppose more familiarity with grammar than can reasonably be expected of many users (Heath – Herbst 1988: 316).

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[82] The change is evident not only in the case of valency, discussed below. Other grammatical information previously represented by means of codes is also conveyed much more clearly, e.g., [Wv6] from LDOCE1 is replaced in LDOCE2 by [not used in progressive forms].

Cowie (1999a: 152) suspects that only the functional labels assumed known to learners were introduced into the LDOCE2 coding apparatus. The term *object* apparently belonged to the supposedly familiar set, but not *complement* or *adjunct*. Similarly, the class of transitive verbs could be referred to, but not that of ditransitive or complex transitive ones. Also, very much in keeping with the approach adopted by Palmer and Hornby et al., a functional label was used only when a post-verbal element was a phrase.[83] Therefore, when the direct object in a ditransitive pattern was realized by a subordinate clause, it was referred to by means of a specific clause category, and not [obj(d)]. This is clearly shown in Table 10 by the codes for *remind* and *tell:* [T] [+ obj + that]*, ask, inform, advise* and *teach:* [T] [+ obj + wh-] as well as *advise* and *persuade:* [T] [+ obj + to-v].

Unfortunately, the information that [obj] is limited to phrasal objects is not explicitly given in the *Full Guide to Using the Dictionary*. It can be only inferred from the explanation of [~~obj~~], used with the transitive verbs "whose object is always a clause, NEVER a noun or a pronoun" (LDOCE2: F43).[84] Surprisingly enough, Table 10 indicates that the monotransitive verbs which take nominal objects (*believe*, *catch*, *have* and *lack*) are assigned [T] without [obj]. The point is that [T] is used to represent a transitive verb together with its nominal object.[85] Unfortunately, this means that codes including [T] can be easily misinterpreted. To illustrate, the code [T] [+to-v] for the monotransitive verbs *ask* and *decide* in the pattern *ask / decide to do sth*, which is to show that the verbs are followed by a full infinitive, can in fact be taken to mean that the verbs with their nominal objects are followed by a *to*-infinitive. However, [T] [+ obj + to-v] is used with the ditransitive pattern *advise / persuade sb to do sth* and the complex transitive structure *know / report sb to do sth*. As Table 10 shows, the latter code accompanies even the monotransitive pattern *like / want sb to do sth*, where the infinitive is an object, and the noun phrase is the subject of the infinitive. It transpires that lexicographers themselves were sometimes confused as to whether [T] should be

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[83] See section 1.4.3.1.1.

[84] See, for example, [T ~~obj~~] [+ (that)] for *hope* in Table 10.

[85] This reading of the code is justified by the explanatory material, where it is made clear that [T] stands for "[a] verb that must have a direct object, which may be a noun or pronoun, OR a clause. A verb with this code takes a noun or pronoun object. If a [T] verb can also take a clause as its object, a sentence pattern is added to the code" (LDOCE2: F42).

followed by [obj] or not. In the code for *blame*, [obj] precedes *on* and *for*: [T] [+ obj + *on*] and [+ obj + *for*], but in the code for *warn*, [T (*of, against*)], there is no [obj], and only the prepositions *of* and *against* are listed. Yet, one of the examples reads: *He warned me against going there at night*.[86]

The understanding of the linking verb symbol might be likewise problematic. If [L] is used alone, it should be inferred that either nominal or adjectival subject complements can be selected. Additional symbols are included only if the choice is restricted to either category (LDOCE2: F42). While such a solution provides for economy of statement, like the use of [T] for monotransitive verbs with nominal objects, some confusion can naturally arise. McCorduck (1993: 89) rightly claims that this should not be the case, irrespective of whether the typical user is locked into mechanistic interpretation of codes or not.

It has been pointed out in the literature on the subject that the transparency of codes in LDOCE2 was not achieved at the expense of accuracy (Heath – Herbst 1988: 316). Admittedly, the replacement of [5a] (LDOCE1) with [+(that)] (*hope / think that*) or [4] (LDOCE1) with [+v-ing] (*deny / enjoy doing sth*) prove this point; in each pair both codes convey the same information, with that those listed as second are clearer than the (alpha)numeric ones which they supersede. Nonetheless, Table 10 shows that in the interests of user-friendliness, some descriptive fullness and depth were in fact lost, as not all syntactic differences recognized in the first edition are recorded in the second one. *Ask* / *inform sb/sth wh-clause* on the one hand, as well as *advise* / *teach sb/sth wh-infinitive* on the other, coded in LDOCE1 [D6a] and [D6b], respectively, are all subsumed under [T] [+ obj + wh-] in LDOCE2. Thus, *wh*-(finite) clauses and *wh*-infinitives are no longer distinguished. The same loss of accuracy is evident from the codes for *confirm* / *guess wh-clause* and *learn wh-infinitive*, in the case of which [T6a] and [T6b] are replaced by [T] [+ wh-].[87]

Criticized for the lack of systematic notes on the impossibility of passivization, confirmed in Table 10 by *lack* and *have*, LDOCE2 is praised for the layout and clarity of code explanations in the front matter (Haus-

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[86] Herbst (1989b: 104) also pays attention to the problematic use of [T] to represent the verb and its nominal object, which he considers a "major inconsistency" in the treatment of verb complementation in LDOCE2.

[87] See also the discussion of LDOCE1 codes in section 1.4.3.1.2.

mann – Gorbahn 1989: 51). Codes are listed on the inside front cover, then – briefly introduced (LDOCE2: F10-11), and finally – explained and exemplified, with special attention paid to possible misinterpretations, illustrated in examples clearly marked as incorrect (LDOCE2: F37-44). According to Heath and Herbst (1988: 316-317), the new organization of the front matter reflects the insight that introductions to dictionaries are hardly ever read. In their view, it also pioneers an approach which has been in demand for quite a long time. For example, questions which dictionary users can ask, such as "Putting words together correctly – how the grammar codes can help" (LDOCE2: F28), serve as section headings, which in this way refer directly to what learners are looking for rather than to dictionary conventions. No wonder, then, that the extra information on codes in LDOCE2 has been labeled "exemplary" (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 55).

Finally, it is worth noting that LDOCE2, unlike the other dictionaries discussed so far, employs the plus sign to indicate the sequence of elements in verb patterns. This typographic device is not only space-consuming, but it might also be misleading inasmuch as it does not always indicate obligatory complementation (McCorduck 1993: 87).

Overall, even though the immediate interpretability of LDOCE2 codes sometimes makes them linguistically less accurate in comparison with their counterparts in the first edition, "there is more gain than loss" (Cowie 1999a: 151) in the dictionary coding scheme, considered a great improvement on that in LDOCE1 (Heath – Herbst 1988: 316). Changes whereby transparency was given priority over space and cost considerations were found greatly welcome (Herbst 1989a: 1383). They were also seen as evidence of Longman's flexibility and responsiveness to criticism (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 55).

Even though COBUILD1 did not have its immediate predecessor to replace and, possibly – improve on, its editors were acutely aware of various problems with presenting syntactic information in a pedagogical dictionary (Sinclair 1987b: 110). They realized that arbitrary codes were unacceptable because of the difficulty and frustration which their consultation entails. They also knew that using any precise grammatical terminology could be a risky venture and suspected that explanations in other dictionaries were hardly ever read, let alone relied on. That is why it was assumed that dictionary users should be able to find the necessary information with a single look-up or one cross-reference at most. The editors'

intention was that codes should be as explicit and self-explanatory as possible (Moon 2007: 174).

Moon (2009: 452) mentions two concerns which motivated the treatment of syntax in COBUILD1: first – the need to reflect the grammatical behavior of words identified in the corpus, second – the avoidance of complex systems of alphanumeric and non-intuitive codes, too difficult for dictionary users. As can be seen from Table 10, most abbreviations in COBUILD1 codes are relatively straightforward, e.g., [to-INF], [INF], [-ING], [PREP] or [REPORT-CL]. The last one stands for reported clauses, i.e., clauses introduced by *that*, *wh*-words, *if* and *whether* (COBUILD1: 1227). There is no doubt that it is not as clear as more descriptive labels representing each clause type at a time (Dziemianko 2002: 218). To illustrate, [V+REPORT-CL], which in Table 10 accompanies *hope* / *think that* as well as *confirm* / *guess wh-clause*, is less informative than the codes in the other dictionaries, where the respective types of clausal objects are specified: [+ (that) (clause)] and [+ wh (word)] or [+ question word].[88]

Apart from the aforementioned symbols for surface structures, COBUILD1 uses [O] for *object*, [A] for *adjunct* and [C] for *complement*. Noun phrases functioning as objects are represented by [O]. The dictionary does not distinguish between direct and indirect objects in codes for ditransitive patterns. When both objects are realized by noun phrases, [V + O + O] is given, as in *envy / offer sb sth*. When verbs take clausal objects, in turn, [REPORT-CL] is used, e.g., [V + O + REPORT-CL] for *advise / teach sb/sth wh-infinitive* or the aforementioned [V + REPORT-CL] for *hope / think that* and *confirm / guess wh-clause*.[89]

Structures in which a post-verbal element is realized by a clause, finite or infinitival, are considered particularly difficult to analyze, let alone describe helpfully to foreign learners (Cowie 1999a: 153). The codes given in

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[88] Tarp (2008: 238) finds symbols beginning with [wh-] difficult to relate to *how*, in contrast to [question word] from CALD1-3. Admittedly, [question word] might make it easier for dictionary users to build associations with *how*, but remains difficult to link with *if*, just like [wh-]. Akasu et al. (2005: 167), in turn, do not see much difference between the two labels and do not expect any such nominal changes to have any effect on users.

[89] The assignment of functional description to clausal constructions is not made clear by the editors of COBUILD1. Nonetheless, there are codes where clauses are evidently shown as sharing the function of nominal objects, e.g., [V+O/REPORT-CL/-ING] (COBUILD1: *forget1*).

Table 10 for the complex transitive structure *name sb sth* prove that nominal phrases in verb patterns are no less problematic. In COBUILD1, the pattern *name sb sth* is coded [V + O + O/NAME], which implies that the verb needs two objects, just like *envy / offer sb sth*, or an object and a name. Yet, it is not certain whether [NAME] is to be read as a typical realization of the direct object of the verb or maybe it performs another function. The dictionary explanation of [NAME] (COBUILD1: 955) does not supply any information on the syntactic role of this label in such pattern representations. Interestingly, information on two objects in the pattern *name sb sth* can also be found in CALD1-3, but not in LDOCE2 and CIDE, which in the code [+ obj + n] identify only one object.

Table 10 proves Cowie's (1999a: 153) observation that COBUILD1 is inconsistent in recording the nature of complements, and sometimes even in recognizing their presence. In the codes for *hear / watch sb/sth doing sth* [V + O] and *see sb/sth do sth* [V + O: USU+A], the need for the complement is not signaled at all. In the code for *find sb/sth -ed* [V + O + C/A], [C] does appear in the code, but no information is given on the need for the *-ed* participle complementation. As already mentioned in section 1.4.2.1, the dictionary explains that in this combination [C] can be realized by adjectives and nouns (COBUILD1: 1629), which is not specific enough for the purposes of the investigation. The inconsistency in representing the nature of complements is evident also from the codes for *keep sb/sth+adj* [V + O + C(ADJ)], *drive sb/sth+adj* [V + O + C] and *appoint sb sth* [V + O + C]. It seems that signaling the need for an adjectival complement in the case of *drive* and a nominal one in the case of *appoint* would be helpful.

By contrast, the COBUILD1 policy concerning adjuncts, which assumes employing [A] when the choice of prepositions is open and spelling out the alternatives when it is limited, is claimed to be "well conceived and ... consistently implemented" (Cowie 1999a: 153). However, a look at the code for *warn sb of/against*, i.e., [V + O + A] calls this consistency into question; the verb is used with a limited set of prepositions, which are not listed. In the code for *blame sb for sth* [V + O: IF + PREP THEN *for*], in turn, there is the sequence [IF + PREP THEN], which is considered "a rather roundabout way of indicating optional prepositional complementation" (Herbst 1989b: 104) and "obscure with its separation of the abbreviation of the class 'PREP' from any of its realizations" (McCorduck 1993: 90). It seems that the code could be easily modified;

[V + O (+ for)] or [V + O (+ A/for)] convey the same information and, in addition, save some space.

The use of [A] in verb codes in COBUILD1 was rightly challenged on the grounds that it might be far from immediately comprehensible to dictionary users and presuppose too much familiarity with linguistic theory to be of any help (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 49, Herbst 1989a: 1383). Similar arguments can be advanced against [C]. The dictionary, criticized like LDOCE2 for mixing the levels of form and function in presenting verb complementation in codes (Herbst 1989b: 102-103, McCorduck 1993: 90), indeed "overshoots the mark" (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 49) referring to as many as three functional categories (objects, complements and adjuncts).

COBUILD1 differs from its competitors not only in the use of symbols for complements and adjuncts and the removal of codes from the main, discursive text of the entry to the extra column, but also in explanatory notes on codes. Each code is explained inside a box at its alphabetical place in the dictionary, which, in Aarts's (1991b: 221) view, makes for clarity and easy reading. Thus, the explanation of [V + O + O], for example, is located between *vomit* and *voodoo*. Boxes distinguish such special entries from those for lexical items. The "boxed entries" (Sinclair 1987b: 112) offer grammatical information on codes and supply examples with words coded in a given way. Although Hausmann and Gorbahn (1989: 50) argue that the boxing method makes it possible to include quite extensive grammatical information, the information actually made available is often insufficient. To illustrate, the entry for [O] (COBUILD1: 988) just refers the dictionary user to entries for compound codes with [O]. This flies in the face of the principle, mentioned above, that dictionary users should be saved cross-references and should manage to find the necessary information possibly with a single look-up. On the other hand, there are boxed entries which supply too much grammatical information. The explanation of [PASS] (COBUILD1: 1049) is nothing short of "a mini-grammar lesson on the passive voice" (McCorduck 1993: 53). Yet, elaborate though it is, this box does not reveal how restrictions on passivization are represented in the dictionary. In fact, like LDOCE2, COBUILD1 fails to give consistent information on passivization constraints in lexical entries. As can be seen from Table 10, no such restrictions are indicated in the entries for *lack* and *have*.

Finally, it is worth noting that in COBUILD1, symbols in verb codes are written in capital letters. The decision to use capitals reflects the insightful observation that "[t]he more minute typographical distinctions … may be savoured by fellow lexicographers, but ignored or misinterpreted by users" (Sinclair 1984: 4).[90] Obviously, capitals make codes more noticeable. They also distinguish grammatical information from that on semantic relations, given in the extra column in lower case.

The verb coding system in COBUILD1 was affected by corpus research, which underlies the dictionary design. As Sinclair (1987b: 115) put it, "language is under examination as never before, and the consequences for lexicography include a complete overhaul of the presentation of grammatical information". It may be doubted, however, whether relatively extensive reference to functional categories in verb codes was indeed in keeping with the original intention of devising an explicit system of verb codes which could make it possible even for grammatically uninitiated dictionary users to operate at the basic level of encoding. As a matter of fact, the grammatical apparatus of COBUILD1 was found cumbersome and hard to follow (Hanks 2008a: 108). In this regard, the remark by Hausmann and Gorbahn (1989: 53) that LDOCE2, with years of experience behind it, is more sensitive to users' needs than COBUILD1 seems legitimate.

CIDE, like LDOCE2 and COBUILD1, developed a coding system which is based on transparent symbols and labels. Formal categories are represented in Table 10 by means of [n], [adj], [adv/prep], [(that) clause], [wh-word], [to infinitive], [infinitive without to], [v-ing], [v-ed]. Clearly, this set of formal labels is close to the one in LDOCE2. The most striking difference concerns the representation of infinitives, for which purpose CIDE does not use any abbreviations. It seems that [to infinitive] and [infinitive without to] are needlessly space-consuming; the corresponding symbols and labels in the other dictionaries are no less transparent.[91]

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[90] The need to re-assess typographical conventions was recognized at the early stage of work on the dictionary, and concerned codes, abbreviations, brackets and different fonts (Moon 2007: 174). Krishnamurthy (2008: 237) notes that Sinclair was quite critical of many dictionary conventions, including reliance on partial forms or various symbols. It is Sinclair (1987a, cited in Krishnamurthy 2008: 237) who openly asked the following question: "How good a sample of the language is the dictionary itself? Is it even written in the language it purports to describe?"

[91] The issue gets more attention in Dziemianko (2010).

CIDE refers to sentence functions by means of [obj] and [two objects]. Unfortunately, the former is "strangely vague" (Herbst 1996: 333). It performs, in fact, two functions – when given after the headword, it indicates complementation-taking properties of the verb, but when incorporated into codes following examples, it denotes a sentence constituent. In the latter case, it designates the entity affected by the activity designated by the verb; "[w]hat the subject does has a direct effect on *someone* or *something* – the object" (CIDE: 1616).

Herbst (1996: 333) rightly notes that the placement of [obj] immediately after the headword is confusing, since word class information, rather than information on complementation, can reasonably be expected at that place. Strangely enough, the information supplied by [obj] in this position is repeated by [T], which typically follows the semantic label, pronunciation and the word class symbol. This "dual way of indicating transitivity" (Akasu et al. 2005: 171) results in excessive redundancy. Herbst (1996: 331) remarks that there is in fact no reason why the traditional verb categories should be distinguished in CIDE, since [obj] accompanies all transitive verbs anyway. Besides, it also makes it possible to differentiate between obligatory and optional objects. The object symbol is enclosed in parentheses [(obj)] to indicate that the object is optional (CIDE: 1617). Surprisingly enough, [obj] is not given in the entry line for *hope*, from which [T] is also missing.

As the dictionary explains, verbs which in their complementation patterns are followed by a clause or "another verb" are not described as transitive or intransitive (CIDE: 1616).[92] Indeed, Table 10 reveals that monotransitive verbs which take subjectless clause objects (*think / hope that, confirm / guess wh-clause, forget / learn wh-infinitive, ask / decide to do sth, deny / enjoy doing sth)* are not accompanied by [T] in the entry line. The symbol is typically given when a verb takes a nominal object or two nominal objects (Akasu et al. 1996: 53). However, even then the use of [T] seems inconsistent, as shown by the codes for *envy sb sth* [obj] [T] [+ two objects] and *offer sb sth* [(obj)] [+ two objects]. Yet, it should be noted that in the entry for *envy* there is no other pattern in which the verb would be followed by a clausal or infinitival object. In the entry for *offer*, by contrast, the verb is also presented in the pattern *offer to do sth* [+ to infinitive] (*My father has very kindly offered to take us to the airport*).

[92] Infinitives and continuous verb forms are not treated as clauses in CIDE.

Presumably, this precludes the use of [T] in the entry line with *offer*, since the symbol, as already mentioned, does not apply to verbs which are followed by infinitives.

Unfortunately, it is by no means obvious why [T] is incorporated in some verb codes following examples, but not in others.[93] A logical assumption would be to expect the symbol in codes after specific examples when it is not given in the entry line and when the examples illustrate complementation patterns which do not feature any verb form, finite or otherwise. Its absence from the entry line, in turn, would be justified if a given verb was shown in the entry (also) in a pattern with a clausal object, an infinitive or a continuous verb form. The codes for *advise sb to do sth* [(obj)] [T + obj + to infinitive] and *advise sb wh-infinitive* [(obj)] [+ obj + wh-word] in Table 10 prove, however, that it is not always the case. First, it should be pointed out that [T] does not follow the lemma *advise* presumably because in the entry the verb is shown in the patterns *advise that* [+ that clause] (*He advised that she (should) be patient*) as well as *advise doing sth* [+v-ing] (*I'd advise waiting until tomorrow*). Yet, this fact still does not explain why [T] is then included in the code for *advise sb to do sth*, but not in the one for *advise sb wh-infinitive*. Likewise, [T] is not given in the entry line with *like, want* and *hate*, all of which are shown in the respective entries with clausal objects. Nonetheless, the symbol features only in the code for *like / want sb to do sth* [(obj)] [T + obj + to infinitive], but not in that for *hate sb doing sth* [(obj)] [+ obj + v-ing]. Since, as mentioned above, verbs followed by another verb form in their complementation patterns are not described as transitive in CIDE, it seems that [T] should not be given in the codes for *advise sb to do sth* and *like / want sb to do sth*, either. Unfortunately, learners consulting CIDE might be uncertain whether some verbs are transitive or intransitive. Admittedly, "in some cases it is bafflingly difficult to draw a line, and the distinction does not seem so important, especially for beginners, but … dictionaries should show their judgment particularly when they are intended for foreign learners" (Akasu et al. 1996: 45).

The codes [(obj)] [T + obj + to infinitive] for *like / want sb to do sth* and [(obj)] [+ obj + v-ing] for *hate sb doing sth*, raise doubts also about the meaning of [obj] in codes located after examples. In each of them

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[93] Remarkably, Akasu at al. (1996: 44) put down the inconsistent use of [T] in CIDE verb codes to insufficient proofreading.

[obj] occupies the place of the subject of the clausal object; according to Quirk et al. (1985: 1192, 1195), the noun phrase preceding the infinitive clause and the -ing participle clause in the verb patterns listed above is not the object of the verb, but the subject of the following clause. Apparently, the dictionary does not differentiate between the monotransitive structures such as *like / want sb/sth to do sth* and the superficially similar complex transitive (*report sb/sth to do sth*) or ditransitive ones (*advise / persuade sb/sth to do sth*), all of which are given the same code [(obj)] [T + obj + to infinitive].[94] Likewise, the code for the monotransitive pattern *hate sb/sth doing sth* [(obj)] [+ obj + v-ing] accompanies also the complex transitive *hear sb/sth doing sth*. It is clear, then, that [obj] in codes following examples does not always stand for the object. In fact, only in complex transitive and ditransitive structures does it perform this function.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to decide what it actually stands for. It might be tempting to say that, contrary to how the dictionary defines it, [obj] represents any noun phrase which follows a transitive verb, not necessarily the entity affected by the activity denoted by the verb. While the codes adduced above would confirm this conclusion, the code for *name sb sth* [(obj)] [T] [+ obj + n] undermines it, since the nominal object complement is represented there by [n], not [obj]. Moreover, the code for *name sb sth* suggests that a distinction can be drawn between this complex transitive pattern and the superficially identical ditransitive one (*envy /offer sb sth*), where the code [+ two objects] appears.

Interestingly, in codes for monotransitive verbs with nominal objects, [obj] does not stand for either a sentence constituent or any formal category in verb complementation patterns. In the codes for *believe / catch sb/sth* [(obj)] [T] and *have / lack sb/sth* [obj] [T], the object symbol is given only after the headword, where it represents a verb class rather than a post-verbal element and informs dictionary users that the verbs take a nominal object. For the sake of consistency it should also be noted that CIDE does not indicate by means of codes or labels any constraints on the passivization of *lack* and *have*.

The above overview proves Herbst's (1996: 333) point that CIDE gives information on verb complementation by means of codes in too

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[94] The assignment of the same codes to patterns which look the same on the surface but are functionally different is even seen as "one of the major problems with CIDE" (Akasu et al. 1996: 45).

many different places, which might be confusing. The problem is further compounded by the fact that codes representing the same patterns are sometimes repeated in the entry, and their arrangement turns out to be haphazard. Herbst (1996: 333) pays attention to the entry for *realize*, where codes with accompanying examples are given in the following order: [T], [+ (that) clause], [+ wh-word], [+ wh-word], [+ (that) clause], [I]. It should also be pointed out that codes are not given any typographic prominence, which might add to the confusion created by the repetition of patterns. Heuberger (2000: 64), in turn, notes that CIDE not only fails to sequence, or simply group patterns logically, but it does not give a matching code to each example sentence, either.

The distribution of coded information on verb syntax in the CIDE microstructure seems to be in keeping with the idea that more is better, which, however, is not always the case. In fact, this sort of redundancy may be a burden to dictionary users, forced to wade through repetitive information, which might hinder retrievability. The way of coding syntactic information made the dictionary notorious for being "the most inconsistent and the least clear" (Herbst 1996: 333). The modest sample of verb codes in Table 10 suffices to corroborate Herbst's (1996: 354) words that, as far as coding verb syntax is concerned, "CIDE fails to convince because its approach is not notably superior to its predecessors' in any respect. In fact, one might argue that the need to be different has … obscured the valuable information contained in this dictionary".

Accused of failing to learn its lesson from the drawbacks of the coding systems in the earlier editions of its competitors (Aarts 1999: 30), CIDE adopted some aspects of the COBUILD1 policy of spreading explanatory notes on codes throughout the dictionary and ordering them alphabetically. It offers language portraits, which are less numerous than boxed entries in COBUILD1 and deal with syntax, semantic distinctions and morphology. However, they have not been found useful (Bogaards 1996: 297).[95] Nonetheless, the use of language portraits means that the dictionary "paid heed to user research showing that nobody reads long prefaces or introductions" (Herbst 1996: 339).

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[95] *Two objects* or *Verbs* are the language portraits which explain verb syntax and codes. The grammar labels used in CIDE are also listed on the front inside cover and the following inserted page.

By and large, the system of verb codes in CIDE, which supplies information at two levels of linguistic description, leaves a lot to be desired not only because of the ubiquity of codes in the microstructure. As has been shown above, the system is inconsistent and needlessly complicated, and the meaning of some codes remains unclear. Even the dictionary information on how to interpret them does not always tally with how they are actually used. As a matter of fact, it is difficult to agree with Akasu et al. (1996: 43), who assert that CIDE codes are very clear and easy to understand. On top of that, they are needlessly space-consuming.

CALD1-3 use virtually the same formal and functional symbols as CIDE, including the unabbreviated labels for bare and full infinitives as well as two functional symbols: [obj] and [two objects]. Only [+ question word] takes the place of [+ wh-word], [+ past participle] is used instead of [+v-ed] and the string [+ (that) clause] is reduced to [+ (that)]. While omitting [clause] from the last code does not entail any semantic loss, it seems that for those who are not conversant with grammar terms, [v-ed] can be more informative than [past participle].[96] In the last edition another change was introduced: [+ v-ing] was replaced by [+ -ing VERB], which, unfortunately, does not appear to be any clearer, even though it takes up more space. Besides, capital letters are used in CALD3 codes; [that] and [-ing] are among the few symbols still in lower case. This typographical modification makes verb codes more easily noticeable, but consumes space.

In each edition the symbols used in codes are simply listed inside the front cover, without any additional explanation in the outside matter or special entries interspersed among lexical ones. The information which accompanies the codes on the cover is lacking in detail. To illustrate, the only comment on [obj + to infinitive] is "verb with an object followed by an infinitive with *to*". Worse yet, the list of codes is never exhaustive; [obj], [+ to infinitive], [two objects] and [T] are nowhere to be found on the front cover in either CALD1 or CALD2, and [obj] is still missing from the list of codes in CALD3.

Irrespective of the close correspondence between the sets of symbols in CIDE and CALD1-3, the latter do not follow blindly the approach to coding verb syntax adopted by their predecessor. Fortunately, they desisted from placing [obj] after the headword to indicate verb complemen-

[96] Comments on [question word] vs. [wh-word] have already been cited above.

tation-taking properties; the symbol appears only in codes for verb patterns. Yet, its function is unclear and its use – quite erratic. As regards the selected monotransitive constructions, it features only in the code for *like / want sb to do sth* [+ obj + to infinitive], where it occupies the place of the subject of the infinitive. In complex transitive patterns, it stands for the direct object in less than half of all the cases considered: *keep sb/sth adj* [T] [+ obj + adj], *know sb/sth to do sth* [T] [+ obj + to infinitive], *hear/watch sb/sth doing sth* [T] [+ obj + v-ing] and, in CALD1-2 – also *let sb/sth do sth* [T + obj + infinitive without to]. Finally, it is generally absent from codes for ditransitive verbs, except for the code for *tell sb/sth that* [T] [+ OBJ + (that)] in CALD3, in which it represents the indirect object. In this respect, CALD1-3 stand in stark contrast to CIDE, where, as Table 10 shows, [obj] as a sentence constituent is hardly ever absent from the codes for complex transitive and ditransitive patterns.

The frequent non-use of [obj] in CALD1-3 would be justified if [T] represented a verb along with its nominal object or any noun phrase following the verb, regardless of its syntactic function. [T] could indeed be taken for a verb and its nominal object in the codes for these complex transitive structures: *see / slip sb/sth adv/prep* [T; usually + adv or prep], *see sb do sth* [T] [+ infinitive without to], *get sb/sth -ed participle* [T] [+ past participle] and the following ditransitive patterns: *remind sb that* [T] [+ (that)], *ask / advise sb wh-word* [T] [+ question word] or *advise / persuade sb to do sth* [T] [+ to infinitive]. Yet, the codes for the complex transitive and ditransitive constructions cited in the previous paragraph, which feature both [T] and [obj], call such an explanation into question. [T] does not perform the predicted role in codes for monotransitive verbs with subjectless clausal objects, either, where it is used even though the verbs in question are not followed by a noun phrase. In effect, codes for some ditransitive verbs prove identical with those for the monotransitive verbs under discussion. As can be seen in Table 10, [T] [+ (that)] accompanies *remind / tell sb that* and *hope / think that*, [T] [+ question word] goes with *ask sb wh-clause* and *advise sb wh-infinitive* as well as with *confirm / guess wh-clause* and *forget wh-infinitive*, [T] [+ to infinitive] applies to *advise / persuade sb to do sth* and *ask / decide to do sth*. Employing the same codes for ditransitive and monotransitive patterns might be misleading in view of the fact that the structures differ even in the number of post-verbal elements, let alone in their function. It seems that such patterns are unlikely to be used properly if learners rely only on

codes. Regrettably, no firm conclusion about the role of either [obj] or [T] in verb codes in CALD1-3 can be reached on the basis of the collected sample. It is a pity that the dictionaries pass over such important points in silence. As mentioned above, the significance of [obj] is not made clear in any dictionary, while the brief explanation of [T] supplied only in CALD3 (inside the front cover) tells the dictionary user that the symbol stands for a "transitive verb; verb that has an object".[97]

Another observation following from the analysis of verb codes in Table 10 is that CALD1-3 give the same code, [T] [+ two objects], for the ditransitive structure *envy/offer sb sth* and the complex transitive one *name sb sth*, even though in the latter the second post-verbal element is the object complement and not the object (Quirk et al. 1985: 1171).[98] Besides, the dictionaries do not signal restrictions on the passive transformation of *have / lack sb/sth*. However, *report sb/sth to do sth* is represented by means of the pattern illustration [be reported to be/do sth], which suggests that the structure occurs typically in the passive. Whereas pattern illustrations get full attention in section 1.4.3.1.4., it is worth noting at this point that such descriptive substitutes for syntactic codes appear occasionally also in CALD1-3.

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[97] The fact that codes which include [obj] and [T] are open to different interpretations justifies giving them the benefit of the doubt and including in the analysis. This appears defy the major principle used to assess the adequacy of codes in the selected verb sample (section 1.4.2.1), which concerns the number of post-verbal elements. However, conclusions as to the number of components in a verb pattern depend on how [T] is interpreted. As pointed out above, there are arguments to read it as a verb with the following noun phrase on the one hand, and as a verb only, on the other. To be on the safe side, a decision was ultimately made to accept the codes where the number of post-verbal elements matches that in the classification by Quirk et al. (1985) when [T] is interpreted in either way.

[98] Commenting on the treatment of grammar in CALD1, Akasu et al. (2005: 173) note that *name sb sth* is coded improperly, but surmise that this particular occurrence of [two objects] must be an isolated case, the code being absent from the list of grammar labels in the dictionary. Yet, the examples of *envy/offer sb sth*, cited above, where the code is used as well, suggest that it does not appear in the dictionary by accident. Its inadequacy to represent *name sb sth* is by no means certain, either, considering problems with functional categorization, discussed in sections 1.4.1 and 1.4.2.1. The code was eventually taken into account in the analysis since it can liberally (but reasonably) be interpreted as indicating the need for two noun phrases in the complementation pattern of *name*, irrespective if the syntactic function of the second post-verbal noun phrase. Such an approach is in accord with the criteria accepted for code assessment, presented in section 1.4.2.1.

All in all, the system of verb codes in CALD1-3 consists of symbols and labels which are usually transparent, but the meaning and use of [T] and [obj] are open to question. Learners may find them truly confounding. There are also serious inconsistencies not only in syntactic functions assigned to surface constituents, but, worse yet, in their number. The latter drawback should be reckoned with. While dictionary users, as already pointed out, can be safely assumed to be uninterested in syntactic functions, they need to know what formal elements are required in a verb complementation structure. Unfortunately, even such basics are not clearly presented in some verb codes in CALD1-3. Finally, the questions which were brought up in the course of the analysis of verb codes from CALD1-3 suggest that listing grammar labels, especially functional ones and verb class symbols, with hardly any explanation cannot compensate for the lack of a succinct and clear guide with example sentences added for clarification.

In conclusion, the functional-formal verb codes examined above are no doubt more transparent and accessible to dictionary users than mnemonic codes in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4, let alone opaque alphanumeric cross-references to the outside matter in GEW and OALDCE1-3. However, although immediate recognition of verb complementation on the basis of such codes is usually possible, some conclusions are far from definite. As shown above, object and transitive verb symbols invite different interpretations in different codes in the same dictionary. Formal-functional codes would be much more straightforward if the symbols were precisely defined and consistently used. For example, [T] could designate the transitive verb alone, and [obj] – any object realized by a noun phrase. Then, [T] would not presuppose a noun phrase in codes for monotransitive verbs with subjectless clausal objects, and confusion between different patterns would also be largely reduced.

There is no denying the fact that the simplification of verb coding systems took its toll on accuracy. As shown above, fine syntactic detail and a number of distinctions were lost as a result of increased transparency.[99] Yet, dictionary users are quite unlikely to mourn the loss of something they, by all accounts, do not want or appreciate. Another outcome of the increased transparency of verb codes is the loss of dictionary space, so

[99] The issue is further discussed in section 1.4.3.1.5, where pertinent opinions voiced in the literature on the subject are cited.

precious in paper publications. As a matter of fact, this seeming disadvantage may prove doubly beneficial. For one thing, less algebraic codes might turn out to be less off-putting and daunting than abstruse sequences of letters, numbers and dots, the mere sight of which might discourage students from deciphering them. For another, longer codes become more conspicuous and salient. As such, they are more likely to be noticed, even inadvertently. In some cases, however, they seem needlessly lengthy and might well be shortened without any obvious loss on the side of clarity.

According to Herbst (1999: 233), pedagogical dictionaries tend to focus on the formal aspect of complementation. The above analysis shows that in the systems under discussion, symbols denoting sentence functions are indeed in the minority. The following section focuses on dictionaries which have gone a step further and altogether dispensed with sentence functions in verb coding systems.

1.4.3.1.3.2. Formal

In as many as eight dictionaries, verb codes consist of one verb symbol [V], sometimes additionally modified, and formal categories of linguistic description representing verb complementation structures. Codes of this type, where no recourse is made to syntactic functions, are collated in Table 11.

Table 11. Transparent formal verb coding systems: COBUILD2-6 and OALDCE5-7

	Verb	COBUILD2	COBUILD3	COBUILD4	COBUILD5	COBUILD6	OALDCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7
I	arrive	V	V	V	V	v	V	V	V
I	matter	V	V	V	V	v	V	V	V
L	become	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, v adj	V-adj	linking verb V-ADJ	linking verb V-ADJ
L	seem	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, Vadj	V-LINK, v adj	V-adj	linking verb V-ADJ	linking verb V-ADJ
L	be	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, v n	V-n	linking verb V-N	linking verb V-N
L	prove	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, Vn	V-LINK, v n	V-n	linking verb V-N	linking verb V-N
M	believe	Vn	Vn	Vn	Vn	v n	Vn	VN	VN
M	catch	Vn	Vn	Vn	Vn	v n	Vn	VN	VN
M	have	VB: no passive, Vn	VB: no passive, Vn	VERB: no passive, Vn	VERB: no passive, Vn	VERB, no passive, v n	Vn	VN	VN
M	lack	V-ERG, Vn	V-ERG, Vn	Vn	Vn	v n	Vn no passive	VN no passive	VN no passive
M	hope	V that	V that	V that	V that	v that	V.that	V (that)	V (that)
M	think	V that	V that	V that	V that	v that	V.that	V (that)	V (that)
M	confirm	–	–	–	–	–	also V.wh	V wh-	V wh-
M	guess	V wh	V wh	V wh	V wh	v wh	V.wh	V wh-	V wh-
M	forget	–	–	–	–	–	V.wh	V wh-	V wh-
M	learn	V wh	V wh	V wh	V wh	v wh	V.wh	V wh-	V wh-
M	ask	V to-inf	V to-inf	V to-inf	V to-inf	v to-inf	V.to inf	V to inf	V to inf

	Verb	COBUILD2	COBUILD3	COBUILD4	COBUILD5	COBUILD6	OALDCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7
M	decide	V to-inf	V to-inf	V to-inf	V to-inf	v to-inf	V.to inf	V to inf	V to inf
M	deny	V -ing	V -ing	V -ing	V -ing	v v-ing	V.ing	V -ing	V -ing
M	enjoy	Vn/-ing	Vn/-ing	Vn/-ing	Vn/-ing	v v-ing	V.ing	V -ing	V -ing
M	like	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	v n to-inf	V.n to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf
M	want	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	v n to-inf	V.n to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf
M	hate	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	v n -ing	V.n ing	VN -ing	VN -ing
M	risk	–	–	–	–	–	–	also VN -ing	also VN -ing
C	drive	Vn adj	Vn adj	Vn adj	Vn adj	v n adj	Vn-adj	VN-ADJ	VN-ADJ
C	keep	Vn adj	Vn adj	Vn adj	Vn adj	v n adj/prep	Vn-adj	VN-ADJ	VN-ADJ
C	appoint	Also Vn n	Also Vn n	Also Vn n	Also Vn n	Also v n n	Vn-n	VN-N	VN-N
C	name	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	v n n	Vn-n	VN-N	VN-N
C	see	Vn prep/adv	Vn prep/adv	Vn prep/adv	Vn prep/adv	v n prep/adv	Vnadv	VN+adv./prep.	VN+adv./prep.
C	slip	Vn prep	Vn prep	Vn prep	Vn prep	v n prep	Vnpr	VN+adv./prep.	VN+adv./prep.
C	know	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	v n to-inf	V.n to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf
C	report	be V-ed to-inf	be V-ed to-inf	be V-ed to-inf	be V-ed to-inf	be v-ed to-inf	V.n to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf
C	let	Vn inf	Vn inf	Vn inf	Vn inf	v n inf	Vn.inf (no to)	VN inf	VN inf
C	see	Vn inf	Vn inf	Vn inf	Vn inf	v n inf	Vn.inf (no to)	VN inf	VN inf
C	hear	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	v n -ing	Vn.ing	VN -ing	VN -ing
C	watch	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	Vn -ing	v n -ing	Vn.ing	VN -ing	VN -ing
C	find	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	v n -ed	~~Vn adj~~	~~VN-ADJ~~	~~VN-ADJ~~
C	get	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	Vn -ed	v n -ed	~~Vn adj~~	VN-ADJ ~sth done	VN-ADJ ~sth done

	Verb	COBUILD2	COBUILD3	COBUILD4	COBUILD5	COBUILD6	OALDCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7
D	envy	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	v n n	Vnn	VNN	VNN
D	offer	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	Vnn	v n n	Vnn	VNN	VNN
D	blame	V n for n, V n on n	V n for n, V n on n	V n for n, V n on n	V n for n, V n on n	v n for, v n on	~sb (for sth) / ~sth on sb Vnpr	~sb/sth (for sth) | ~sth on sb/sth VN	~sb/sth (for sth) | ~sth on sb/sth VN
D	warn	Vn of/about n	Vn of/about n	Vn of/about n	Vn of/about n	v n of/about	~sb (of sth); ~sb about / against sb/sth; ~sb against doing sth Vnpr	~ (sb) (of sth) | ~ sb (about / against sb/sth) VN	~ (sb) (of sth) | ~ sb (about / against sb/sth) VN
D	remind	Vn that	Vn that	Vn that	Vn that	v n that	Vn.that	VN (that)	VN (that)
D	tell	Vn that	Vn that	Vn that	Vn that	v n that	Vn.that	VN (that)	VN (that)
D	ask	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	v n wh	Vn.wh	VN wh-	VN wh-
D	inform	–	–	–	–	–	–	also VN wh-	also VN wh-
D	advise	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	v n wh	Vn.wh	VN wh-	VN wh-
D	teach	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	Vn wh	v n wh	Vn.wh	VN wh-	VN wh-
D	advise	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	v n to-inf	Vn. to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf
D	persuade	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	Vn to-inf	v n to-inf	Vn. to inf	VN to inf	VN to inf

Unlike in the case of functional-formal codes, there was no need to use square brackets in Table 11 to illustrate the distribution of formal verb codes in the microstructure. In COBUILD2-5, they are given in the extra column. In COBUILD6 and OALDCE5-7, in turn, they are placed inside the entry block, usually at one place.

The extra column, introduced in COBUILD1 and hailed as the most important methodological novelty (Piotrowski 1988: 253), was incorporated in the four subsequent editions of the dictionary. However, the presentation of codes in the margin of the entry in COBUILD2-5 considerably improved in comparison with the first edition. First, the patterns possible for a verb sense were no longer given as a sequence of symbols separated by slashes or joined by conjunctions. Instead, each pattern is shown in a separate code, and all the codes are listed one below another. Second, in the column, they are positioned next to examples, rather than beside the definition – as was the case in COBUILD1, which, in Hanks's (2008a: 108) view, greatly improves clarity. However, although codes are sequenced in the same order as examples (COBUILD2: xxiv), some of them are not exactly in the same line as the example(s) which flesh them out. Thus, as Heuberger (2000: 63) notes, it is not always clear which codes and examples belong together.

Present in the COBUILD dictionaries for foreign learners for over two decades (1987-2008), the extra column has not stood the test of time. It is absent from COBUILD6, where codes are incorporated into the entry block, where they precede examples. Unfortunately, this change is not accounted for in the dictionary itself, although its editors admit that much effort has been put into revising grammatical information. In their words, "[t]he resulting new system retains all of the most useful, and in many cases, unique, features of the original word-class system, but integrates this important information into the main text of the dictionary" (COBUILD6: xii).[100]

While, regrettably, the reasons for the decision to tightly integrate codes into the microstructure in COBUILD6 are not articulated in the dictionary itself, the move seems to be a very judicious one. The information in the extra column was found to be largely ignored. In reality, the column failed to be a guiding device or a source of productive informa-

[100] The unique features of the COBUILD coding system are even more obvious in the case of nouns, as shown in sections 1.4.3.2.4 and 1.4.3.2.5.

tion for users (Bogaards – Van der Kloot 2001: 118). It proved user-unfriendly also in the experiment where the place of verb codes was purposely manipulated. The study revealed that positioning codes in the margin of the verb entry seriously limited learners' interest in coded information (Dziemianko 2006: 185). Apart from the fact that the extra column made codes less conspicuous, it was troublesome from the production viewpoint. It took up valuable space and was difficult to typeset. It also ruled out pictorial illustrations (Moon 2009: 453).[101]

The strategy of alternating codes and examples is adopted in OALDCE5-7, where codes precede relevant illustrative sentences in the microstructure. Occasionally, however, coded information is given at the end of the entry or at the end of a particular sense, where it represents less common patterns, not shown in example sentences (OALDCE5: B8). As can be seen from Table 11, such extra codes, introduced by *also*, are provided for *confirm wh-clause* [also V.wh] in OALDCE5 as well as *risk sb/sth -ing participle* [also VN -ing] and *inform sb wh-clause* [also VN wh-] in OALDCE6-7. The codes for *appoint sb sth* [Also Vn n] reveal that the same method of representing relatively infrequent verb patterns is used in COBUILD2-6 as well.

In OALDCE5, when a monosemous verb or a sense of a polysemous verb is associated with only one pattern, a relevant code is placed immediately before the corresponding example, or before the definition when no example is given. In OALDCE6-7, by contrast, the verb code invariably precedes the definition. When a verb pattern applies to all the senses in a polysemous verb entry, in all the dictionaries it is represented by means of a code right after the part of speech label, before the senses are distinguished.

As already signaled above, formal verb codes are structured around one verb symbol, [V]. Table 11 shows that to mark copular verbs, [V-LINK] and [linking verb] are used in COBUILD2-6 and OALDCE6-7, respectively. Only OALDCE5 does not have any special label for this verb category. The code for ergative verbs [V-ERG], present in COBUILD2-3, was abandoned in COBUILD4.[102] Other symbols and la-

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[101] Conversely, Masuda et al. (2008: 55) are skeptical about the decision to abandon one of the distinctive features of the dictionary, and presume the absence of the extra column will reduce the findability of grammatical information in entries. However, in the light of the empirical evidence cited above, their skepticism is not justified.

[102] Comments on the symbol were adduced in section 1.4.3.1.3.1.

bels which accompany [V] in the dictionaries represent the structure of complementation patterns.

In comparison with COBUILD1, the system of verb codes in COBUILD2-6 was completely overhauled in favor of a more surface representation. A more minimalist and "streamlined approach" (Hanks 2008a: 108) was adopted whereby the description of complementation patterns relies on their formal components and not on a structural interpretation thereof. As a result, the verb coding system is built around words and word classes rather than traditional functional categories.

Broadly speaking, functional categories were discarded because of the analytical problems which they involve (Herbst 1996: 331). As Hunston and Francis (2000: 45) point out, in a sentence like *She walked four miles*, it is not certain what the function of *four miles* is; the phrase can well be classified as an object or an adjunct. As strings of functional categories often do not accord with intuition and result from an arbitrary allocation of elements, the functional analysis is unreliable (Hunston 2004: 105).[103]

More precisely, functional categories result from the view that lexis and syntax are distinct features of language organization. In the slot and filler approach, a language is reduced to a set of structures, or slots, into which lexical items can be dropped (Clear et al. 1996: 311). Corpora and concordancing challenged this idea. Grammar has become a systematic collection of observations about the way words actually behave rather than a set of abstractions into which words can be slotted (Hunston – Francis 1998: 46). Examining the behavior of words and generalizing on this basis have become more important than ever before, and corpora – instrumental. When a large corpus of naturally occurring language is not reduced to a repository of examples to be selected to illustrate a priori theories of transitivity, but is carefully analyzed, a full range of patterns emerge.[104] Sinclair noted that most lexical choices precede and override grammatical considerations, and insisted that grammar and lexis cannot

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[103] Compare the discussion in section 1.4.2.1.

[104] It is worth referring to Sinclair's (2007: 157) words:

> the corpus has things to tell me, and I try to work out where it is heading. I have been surprised … of so many scholars, who seem to think that they have something to tell the corpus . . . The fact that the theories available to me did not alert me at all to the strongly recurrent patterns found in a corpus nor explained them when they emerged caused me to view theories with increasing suspicion.

be separated (Sinclair 1987b: 109-110, Teubert 2007: 225).[105] The patterns yielded by corpus analysis not only eradicate the artificial divide between vocabulary and grammar, but they actually put the grammatical "flesh" into the "bones" of lexis (Hunston – Francis – Manning 1997: 215). It has been concluded that, since the choice of lexical items determines what sequences of elements are possible, it is the patterning that surrounds a given lexical item that determines the production of a clause, and not an abstract notion of structure. Grammar started then to be seen as a product of lexical behavior (Hunston 2004: 105). As a consequence, the COBUILD2-6 approach to grammar is essentially lexical.

Naturally, a new way of recording the identified regularities had to be devised. In Sinclair's (1987b: 107) view, the recording method should be theory-independent and "[t]he more superficial, the better". The COBUILD2 team did not use the traditional functional categories in the coding system also for practical reasons. A priori categories proved too restrictive to account for all the patterns found in the corpus (Hunston – Francis 1998: 56-57). As a matter of fact, this pragmatic solution followed from the thwarted ambition to interpret all the identified verb patterns in terms of traditional structural categories. The actually undertaken, mammoth task of mapping all patterns onto syntactic functions left the lexicographers disenchanted

> not merely because it turned out to be difficult to the point of impossibility, but because it seemed to be more and more futile. In a handful of cases, the structural analysis added an insight that was missing from our pattern description. In most cases, however, the structural analysis added nothing, and all that was important to say about a verb could be said in terms of its pattern … irrespective of its structural interpretation. Our conclusion was that structural analysis is a pointless exercise (Hunston – Francis 2000: 152).[106]

The complexity of the analysis and its minimal usefulness made COBUILD2 lexicographers give up the thought of relating the surface elements of a pattern to abstract functional categories. The former were eventually found necessary and sufficient to properly render verb com-

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[105] Sinclair's rejection of the traditional division between grammar and lexicon was the actual driving force behind any innovation in COBUILD dictionaries (Sinclair 1987b: 110, Hoey – O'Donnell 2008: 293).

[106] Hunston and Francis (2000: 152-175) cite ample evidence that their rejection of structural analysis did not result from a lack of thought and commitment.

plementation patterns (Hunston – Francis 1998: 59). However, it needs to be stressed that such a conclusion would not have been possible without access to a large corpus; "when looking at *large amounts of real data* [emphasis mine, A.D.], theoretical categories that appear neat and watertight dissolve before one's eyes. The point is not whether questions of functional analysis are difficult or easy to solve; it is whether they are, ultimately, worth solving" (Hunston – Francis 1998: 59).[107] The approach adopted in the end was also considered the most straightforward, since it allowed lexicographers to plainly show detail of usage, and learners to easily see how to use lexical items (Hunston 2004: 103).

COBUILD2-6 verb codes consist of the verb symbol, elements which stand for phrase or clause types as well as actual words, mainly prepositions. Standard abbreviations represent phrases and clauses, e.g., [n], [adj], [-ing], [inf], [to-inf], [prep], [adv]. In COBUILD2-5 the verb symbol is given in capitals, but in COBUILD6 – in lower-case letters, like other post-verbal elements. The label [REPORT-CL], present in COBUILD1, was dropped and the types of reported clauses are specified, e.g., [that] or [wh]. The symbol [PAST PART] was replaced by the more straightforward [-ed].

The coding system in COBUILD2 was designed to meet three requirements: transparency, consistency and flexibility (Hunston – Francis 2000: 33). Transparency enables dictionary users to quickly understand the notation used. As codes present iconically the patterns they describe, any list of codes is superfluous; a clear and concise explanation of symbols becomes sufficient. COBUILD2 abandoned the policy of spreading boxed entries for codes throughout the dictionary. Instead, the inside front and back covers show a list of grammatical symbols with succinct definitions. The symbols themselves, not codes, are explained in more detail in the introduction. In COBUILD3-6, the symbols are still described in the front matter in the same way as in COBUILD2, but they are not listed inside the covers.[108] Consistency in the coding system was achieved by

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[107] COBUILD2 was compiled using the evidence of 200 million words – ten times the corpus made for COBUILD1 (COBUILD2: viii). It is probably the smaller corpus that in 1987 did not yet fully expose the futility of structural analysis, which resulted in reference to three functional categories in COBUILD1 verb codes, as described in section 1.4.3.1.3.1. The issue of corpus size is addressed also in section 1.4.3.2.4.

[108] The information on codes in COBUILD2 was found precise and accessible (Heuberger 2000: 62). However, there was a dissenting voice. Walter (1996: 358) considers

referring only to surface categories, so that the formal and functional levels of metalanguage are not mixed. Finally, there is no clear limit to the patterns that can be coded; any pattern can be captured economically and in detail. Thus, the coding system is flexible. On top of that, it does not prejudge the type of pattern any word may have and can be applied to different parts of speech (Hunston – Francis 2000: 177, Hunston 2004: 101).[109]

Moulin (1999: 182) praises the COBUILD2 verb coding system for describing complex phenomena in simple language and avoiding "any surfeit of specialized jargon". As a result, codes seem accessible to learners with no profound knowledge of English grammar. In Moulin's (1999: 184) words, COBUILD2 "presents a self-consistent, extremely detailed, clear and very accessible picture of English verbal behaviour". Tarp (2008: 236), in turn, appreciates such explicit and precise codes, but suspects that they may still be "very difficult to understand and assimilate for users".

A closer look at the COBUILD2-6 codes collated in Table 11 suggests that their accuracy is, in fact, questionable. For example, *be / prove sb/sth* and *believe / catch sb/sth* are coded [Vn], even though they represent copular and monotransitive categories, respectively. Likewise, there is no difference in the codes for the ditransitive construction *envy / offer sb sth* [Vnn] on the one hand, and the complex transitive pattern *name* / *appoint sb sth* [Vnn] on the other. Hunston and Francis (1998: 56) admit that, in such cases, functional analysis has indeed much to offer as it brings out the difference in the status of the noun groups, which is dependent on the verb used. Nonetheless, structural distinctions can give an adequate picture of only a small proportion of English verbs, which does not justify accepting functional categories as the primary means of coding all verbs (Hunston – Francis 1998: 57).

In COBUILD2-6, no distinction can be drawn *between like / want / know / advise / persuade sb/sth to do sth*, either, all of which are coded [Vn to-inf]. Thus, one code cuts across three major classes of transitive verbs: monotransitive, complex transitive and ditransitive. Likewise, *hear*

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the key to symbols too brief to be of any help and the longer explanations too difficult to understand.

[109] It is interesting to note that Hunston and Francis's (2000) model of pattern grammar grew out of the work on codes for COBUILD2 (Hanks 2008a: 111, Moon 2007: 168).

/ watch sb/sth doing sth [Vn -ing] cannot be told apart from *hate sb/sth doing sth* [Vn -ing], even though the patterns represent complex transitive and monotransitive constructions, respectively. However, much as such codes are structurally imprecise, they supply just the information foreign learners of English need to know about the behavior of verbs (Clear et al. 1996: 313).

Finally, it should be noted that COBUILD2-6 indicate constraints on the passivization of *have*, but not *lack*. Interestingly enough, the code for *report*, [*be* V-ed to-inf], makes it clear that the verb is typically used in the passive.[110] It is also worth pointing out that the codes for *warn* [Vn *of/about* n] and *blame* [Vn *for* n, Vn *on* n] show prepositions as an integral part of verb patterns. This approach was found commendable, since prepositions tend to be taught in an ad hoc way, as if they were associated with verbs fairly randomly (Hunston – Francis 1998: 51).

All in all, the coding of surface behavior of verbs in COBUILD2-6, following from the view inspired by corpus research that grammar and lexis are ultimately inseparable, does not burden either lexicographers or dictionary users with the interpretation of functional categories. Once sentence functions and verb classes become redundant, simple and straightforward strings of surface pattern constituents take their place. Thus, [V] and [Vn] correspond to the traditional distinction between intransitive and transitive verbs, which seems to be a positive development in the light of the problems [T] itself can pose, as discussed in previous sections. In general, verb codes in COBUILD2-6 look transparent and accessible to foreign learners.

OALDCE5-7, like COBUILD2-6, represent verb patterns by means of codes based on formal categories alone. As already pointed out in section 1.4.3.1.2, OALDCE4 also relied on category symbols in codes, but the codes in OALDCE5 are more transparent. Code transparency was enhanced by abbreviations employed instead of single lower case letters,

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[110] In general, for the sake of convenience and simplicity, the passive is considered a variant of the active pattern in the COBUILD coding system, even though adherence to the surface description would suggest according separate codes to passive constructions (Hunston – Francis 2000: 60). This is the case only when passive patterns begin with an introductory *it* (Hunston – Francis – Manning 1997: 209). In the relevant COBUILD2-6 example (the same in all the editions), *Between forty and fifty people are reported to have died in the fighting*, the passive construction under discussion is not introduced by a dummy subject.

whose meaning was not always immediately recognizable. More precisely, [that] replaced [f], [wh] – [w], [to inf] – [t], [ing] – [g], [inf (no to)] – [i], [n] – [s] or [adj] – [a]. Virtually the same set of symbols for post-verbal elements is used in OALDCE6-7. The most striking difference between the last three editions consists in capitalization. In OALDCE6-7, unlike in OALDCE5, not only the verb symbol [V], but also noun [N] and adjective [ADJ] phrases following the verb are given in capitals; lower case letters represent clauses, adverbs and prepositions. Unfortunately, the change in the capitalization policy is not justified by the dictionaries.

As can be seen from Table 11, OALDCE5-7, in contrast to COBUILD2-6, employ the hyphen to indicate a copular relationship. In the case of linking verbs, the hyphen brings out the copular relationship between the subject and its adjectival or nominal complement, as in *become / seem sb/sth* [V-adj] and *be / prove sb/sth* [V-n], respectively. It also shows the copular relationship between the object of a complex transitive verb and its adjectival complement *drive / keep sb/sth adj* [Vn-adj] or nominal complement *appoint / name sb sth* [Vn-n]. As a result, it is possible to distinguish between superficially similar verb patterns: the linking *be / prove* [V-n] and the monotransitive *believe* / *catch sb/sth* [Vn] as well as the complex transitive *appoint / name* [Vn-n] and the ditransitive *envy* / *offer sb sth* [Vnn].[111]

OALDCE5 features another typographical device in codes, the dot. It is present in codes for verb patterns which include finite or infinite clauses. As the dictionary (OALDCE5: B7-8) explains, when the noun phrase and the *-ing* clause together perform the function of the object, the dot follows the verb symbol and precedes the noun symbol, thereby showing that the noun phrase is closely related to the *-ing* clause. In Table 11, the monotransitive verb *hate sb/sth doing sth* [V.n ing] illustrates the strategy. The dot indicates, then, that the noun phrase itself is not the object of the verb but the subject of the following *-ing* clause. By contrast, the dot separates [n] from [-ing] when the noun phrase, and not the *-ing* clause, is the object, as shown in Table 11 by the code [Vn.ing] for the complex transitive *hear / watch sb/sth doing sth*. In this way, the close connection between the verb and the object noun phrase is brought out,

[111] Although the role of the hyphen in codes for both linking and complex transitive verbs is adequately defined in OALDCE5 (B5-B6), OALDCE6 (B7) and OALDCE7 (R37-R38), complex transitive verbs are not named as such; they are subsumed under linking verbs.

the dot falling between the object and its complement realized by the *-ing* clause. Thus, the codes for the superficially identical mono- and complex transitive patterns differ in the placement of the dot.

The dot appears also when a noun phrase and a full infinitive are required in a verb complementation structure. In the monotransitive structure *like / want sb to do sth* [V.n to inf] the positioning of the dot suggests that the noun phrase and the infinitive together are the object of the main verb. By contrast, in the ditransitive pattern *advise / persuade sb to do sth* [Vn.to inf] it shows that "the noun phrase is connected more closely to the main verb than to the infinitive" (OALDCE5: B7). As can be seen in Table 11, [V.n to inf] accompanies also the complex transitive pattern *know / report sb/sth to do sth*. Thus, the position of the dot might be taken to imply that, like in the corresponding monotransitive construction, [n to inf] is one object. In fact, it is impossible to infer from this notation that in the monotransitive structure, the noun phrase is the subject of the infinitival object, while in the complex transitive one, it is an object.

Table 11 shows that the dot appears in codes for monotransitive verbs when the function of the object is performed by a *that*-clause: *think / confirm that* [V.that], a *wh*-clause: *confirm / guess / forget / learn wh*-clause [V.wh], a subjectless infinitive: *ask / decide to do sth* [V.to inf] and a subjectless *ing*-clause: *deny / enjoy doing sth* [V.ing]. However, there seems to be no rationale for the use of the dot in such patterns, where it is actually difficult to mistake the clausal objects for anything else.

Overall, codes with the dot, which Heuberger (2000: 61) calls "inscrutable notations", are quite problematic. Aarts (1999: 26), commenting on both the hyphen and the dot rightly concludes that, meant to clarify underlying syntactic differences, they make verb codes more difficult to interpret. In fact, it is even more likely that they remain largely unnoticed by dictionary users, to whom it may not even occur that they can make a difference.

Dispensing with the dot in OALDCE6 and OALDCE7 resulted in further blurring the distinctions between structurally different patterns. Table 11 shows that in these dictionaries, the same code, [VN -ing], is given to the complex transitive *hear / watch sb/sth doing sth* and the monotransitive *hate sb/sth doing sth*. Furthermore, distinctions between monotransitive, complex transitive and ditransitive patterns are obliterated as well, as evidenced by [VN to inf], which in OALDCE6-7 goes with *like / want / know / report / advise / persuade sb to do sth*.

Apart from codes, OALDCE5-7 adopted another system of giving information on grammar. Whenever specific prepositions or adverb particles are used with a given verb, they are shown before the definition in bold frames, or "boldface skeletons" (Van der Meer – Sansome 2001: 291), e.g., *blame* [~sb (for sth)/ ~sth on sb] and *warn* [~sb (of sth); ~sb about/against sb/sth; ~sb against doing sth].[112] Printed in bold, frames were found far too conspicuous (Herbst 1996: 333). By contrast, the lack of any typographical prominence of codes in OALDCE5 was considered their major weakness in connection with accessibility (Heuberger 2000: 62). Even though in OALDCE6-7 codes are not given in bold, either, the capitalization of phrasal elements in codes might be a way of making up for this shortcoming. It should also be noted all three dictionaries signal the non-passivization of *lack*, but not *have*.

As regards information on the coding apparatus itself, the dictionaries make do with a few study pages placed in the middle (OALDCE5-6) or back matter (OALDCE7). The pages are printed on glossy paper and/or in two colors, which makes them quite easy to find. Those devoted to verbs explain codes rather than symbols in isolation. Whereas the definitions supplied there "would be rather wide of the mark in a theoretical grammar and any specialised publication, in a practical dictionary they will serve their purpose" (Van der Meer – Sansome 2001: 295). However, Walter (1996: 358) rightly regrets that the user is not clearly directed to the study pages, which she considers remarkable for their clarity.[113]

In general, OALDCE5-7 verb codes were favorably received by (meta)lexicographers. In Bogaards's (1996: 305) view, OALDCE5 codes

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[112] In the case of *get sth -ed participle* in OALDCE6-7, it is the frame [get sth done] following [VN-ADJ] that was decisive in assessing the adequacy of the syntactic information, especially in view of the fact that the dictionaries do not have symbols for the past participle. It should also be noted that the information is illustrated by the following examples: *I must get my hair cut* and *I'll never get all this work finished*. In OALDCE5, by contrast, the frame is not given and examples such as *I must get the dinner ready* or *Don't get your new dress dirty* do not indicate the possibility of using the *-ed* participle. Admittedly, examples like *I couldn't get the car started this morning* or *Go and get your hair cut* are given later in the relevant subentry as well (OALDCE5, *get10*), but their presence does not change the fact that the code [Vn-adj] does not in any way indicate the possibility of using the *-ed* participle in the pattern.

[113] Positive comments on the explanatory material on codes in OALDCE5 were also made by Heuberger (2000: 61) and Herbst (1996: 339). Hanks (2008a: 97) praises the arrangement of patterns on the study pages; all the patterns are organized under six subheadings in order of gradually increasing complexity. On top of that, those which take clauses are separated from those which do not.

are so clear that reference to examples becomes superfluous. Heuberger (2000: 62), by contrast, claims that, although they adequately present verb syntax, illustrative sentences are needed so as not to overtax dictionary users. As shown above, OALDCE5 verb codes, which refer to formal categories of linguistic description, also reveal (some) underlying, structural differences between superficially identical patterns. In subsequent editions, verb codes were further simplified by removing the typographic device, the dot, which served this purpose. Besides, they were made more easily noticeable due to changes in capitalization. All the verb codes discussed above have been found "beautifully clear and simple" (Hanks 2008a: 103). Most importantly, they are self-explanatory; in the absence of functional categories, no technical grammatical knowledge is required to understand them.[114] There is no doubt the dictionaries miss out some syntactic subtleties, but, as Van der Meer and Sansome (2001: 291) rightly note, a dictionary is not a grammar book and should not strive to be one.

Minimizing the explicit grammatical apparatus and terminology, which results in describing verb patterns in terms of word classes rather than clause roles, does not exhaust the solutions adopted in learners' dictionaries with respect to conveying information on verb syntax. Details are offered in the next section.

1.4.3.1.4. Pattern illustrations and verb frames

The overview of verb coding systems in pedagogical dictionaries would be incomplete if LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2 and OALDCE8 were not mentioned. Relevant information is given in Table 12.

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[114] In Tarp's (2008: 239) view, OALDCE7 codes such as [VNN] are not transparent. He argues that they are just abbreviations to word classes, which places them at a high level of grammatical abstraction. Yet, considering the verb coding systems discussed in previous sections and the evolution of the form of codes, it is difficult to fully subscribe to this opinion.

Table 12. Pattern illustrations and verb frames: LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2 and OALDCE8

	Verb	Pattern illustrations					Verb frames
		LDOCE3	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**	**OALDCE8**
I	arrive	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]
I	matter	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]	[I]
L	become	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]+adj.
L	seem	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb], not in progressive	~~[I]~~	~~[I]~~	[linking verb]+adj.
L	be	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]+noun
L	prove	[linking verb]	[linking verb] [prove to be sth]	[linking verb] [prove to be sth]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]	[linking verb]+noun
M	believe	[T] believe sb	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T] ~sb
M	catch	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T] ~sth
M	have	[T] not usually in passive	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	~sth
M	lack	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	[T]	[no passive]] ~sth
M	hope	[T] hope (that)	[T] hope (that)	[T] hope (that)	[T] + (that)	[T] + (that)	[T] ~ (that)
M	think	[T] think (that)	[T] think (that)	[T] think (that)	[T] think (that)	[T] think (that)	[T] ~ (that)
M	confirm	[T] confirm what	[T] confirm what	[T] confirm what	–	–	~what/when, etc…
M	guess	[T] guess what/who/how etc	[T] guess what/who/how etc	[T] guess what/who/how etc	[T] + what/who/how etc	[T] + what/who/how etc	[T] ~where, who, etc…
M	forget	–	–	–	–	–	[T] ~where, how, etc…

	Verb	Pattern illustrations					Verb frames
		LDOCE3	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**	**OALDCE8**
M	learn	[T] learn (how) to do sth	[T] learn (how) to do sth	[T] learn (how) to do sth	[T] learn how to do sth	[T] learn how to do sth	[T] ~how, what, etc…
M	ask	[T] ask to do sth	[T] ask to do sth	[T] ask to do sth	[T] ask to do sth	[T] ask to do sth	[T] ~to do sth
M	decide	[T] decide to do sth	[T] decide to do sth	[T] decide to do sth	[T] decide to do sth	[T] decide to do sth	[T] ~to do sth
M	deny	[T] deny doing sth	[T] deny doing sth	[T] deny doing sth	[T] deny (doing) sth	[T] deny (doing) sth	~doing sth
M	enjoy	[T] enjoy doing sth	[T] enjoy doing sth	[T] enjoy doing sth	[T] enjoy doing sth	[T] enjoy doing sth	[T] ~doing sth
M	like	[T] like sb to do sth	[T] like sb to do sth	[T] like sb to do sth	[T] like sb to do sth	[T] like sb to do sth	[T] ~sb/sth to do sth
M	want	[T] want sb to do sth	[T] want sb to do sth	[T] want sb to do sth	[T] want sb/sth to do sth	[T] want sb/sth to do sth	[T] ~sb/sth to do sth
M	hate	[T] hate sb doing sth	[T] hate sb doing sth	[T] hate sb doing sth	[T] hate sb/sth doing sth	[T] hate sb/sth doing sth	~sb/sth doing sth
M	risk	–	–	–	–	–	~(sb/sth) doing sth
C	drive	[T] drive sb mad/crazy	[T] drive sb crazy/nuts/mad/ insane	[T] drive sb crazy/nuts/mad/insane	[T] drive sb crazy/mad/up the wall/round the bend	[T] drive sb crazy/mad/up the wall/round the bend	[T] ~sb+adj.
C	keep	[T] [keep sb warm/safe etc] [keep sth clean/open etc]	[T] [keep sth clean/tidy] [keep sb busy/amused/ occupied]	[T] [keep sth clean/tidy] [keep sb busy/amused/ occupied]	~~[T]~~	~~[T]~~	[T] ~sb/sth+adj.
C	appoint	[T] appoint (sb) as sth	[T] appoint (sb) as sth	[T] appoint (sb) as sth	[T] appoint sb (as) sth	[T] appoint sb (as) sth	~sb+noun

	Verb	Pattern illustrations					Verb frames
		LDOCE3	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**	**OALDCE8**
C	name	[T] name sb John/Ann etc	[T] name sb John/Ann etc	[T] name sb John/Ann etc	[T] name sb/sth sth	[T] name sb/sth sth	~sb+noun
C	see	see sb home	[T always + adv/prep]	[T always + adv/prep]	[T] see sb home	[T] see sb home	[T] ~sb+adv./prep.
C	slip	[T] slip sth around/into/through	[T always + adv/prep]	[T always + adv/prep]	[T] slip sth into/around/under etc sth	[T] slip sth into/around/under etc sth	[T] ~sth+adv./prep.
C	know	[T] know sth/sb to be sth	[T] know sth/sb to be sth	[T] know sth/sb to be sth	[T] know sth/sb to be sth	[T] know sth/sb to be sth	[T] ~sb/sth to be sth
C	report	[T] be reported to be	be reported to be/do sth	be reported to be/do sth	–	–	[T] be reported to be/have sth
C	let	[T] let sb do sth	[T] let sb do sth	[T] let sb do sth	[T] let sb/sth do sth	[T] let sb/sth do sth	~sb/sth do sth
C	see	[T] see sb/sth do sth	[T] see sb/sth do sth	[T] see sb/sth do sth	-	-	[T] ~sb/sth do sth
C	hear	[T] hear sb/sth doing sth	[T] hear sb/sth doing sth	[T] hear sb/sth doing sth	[T] hear sb/sth doing sth	[T] hear sb/sth doing sth	[T] ~sb/sth doing sth
C	watch	[T] watch sb do/doing sth	[T] watch sb/sth do/doing sth	[T] watch sb/sth do/doing sth	[T] watch sb/sth doing sth	[T] watch sb/sth doing sth	[T] ~sb/sth doing sth
C	find	~~[T]~~	~~[T] find sth/sb easy/useful/interesting etc~~	~~[T] find sth/sb easy/useful/interesting etc~~	~~[T] [find sth difficult/frightening/relaxing etc] [find sb attractive/irritating etc]~~	~~[T] [find sth difficult/frightening/relaxing etc] [find sb attractive/irritating etc]~~	~~[T] ~sb/sth+adj.~~
C	get	get sth fixed/done/ mended etc	~~[T]~~	~~[T]~~	[T] get sth done	[T] get sth done	T ~sth done

	Verb	Pattern illustrations					Verb frames
		LDOCE3	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**	**OALDCE8**
D	envy	[T] envy sb (for) sth	[T] envy sb sth	[T] envy sb sth	[T] envy sb sth	[T] envy sb sth	~sb sth
D	offer	[T] offer sb sth	[T] offer sb sth	[T] offer sb sth	[T] offer sb sth	[T] offer sb sth	[T] ~sb sth
D	blame	[T] [blame sb/sth for] [blame sth on]	[T] [blame sb/sth for sth] [blame sth on sb/sth]	[T] [blame sb/sth for sth] [blame sth on sb/sth]	[T] [blame sth on] [blame sb/sth for sth]	[T] [blame sth on sb/sth] [blame sb/sth for sth]	[~sb/sth (for sth)] [~sth on sb/sth]
D	warn	[T] warn sb about	[T] warn sb about sth	[T] warn sb about sth	[T] warn sb about sth	[T] warn sb about sth	[T] ~(sb) about/against sb/sth
D	remind	[T] remind sb (that)	[T] remind sb (that)	[T] remind sb (that)	[T] remind sb that	[T] remind sb that	~sb (that)
D	tell	[T] tell sb (that)	[T] tell sb (that)	[T] tell sb (that)	[T] tell sb (that)	[T] tell sb (that)	[T] ~sb (that)
D	ask	–	[T] ask sb if/whether	[T] ask sb if/whether	[T] ask (sb) why/how/whether etc	[T] ask (sb) why/how/whether etc	[T] ~sb where, what, etc…
D	inform	[T] inform sb who/why/how	–	–	–	–	~sb when, where, etc…
D	advise	–	–	–	[T] advise sb what/where/how/ when	[T] advise sb what/where/how/ when	[T] ~(sb) what, which, whether, etc…
D	teach	[T] teach sb (how) to do sth	[T] teach sb (how) to do sth	[T] teach sb (how) to do sth	[T] teach sb (how) to do sth	[T] teach sb (how) to do sth	[T] ~sb how, what, etc…
D	advise	[T] advise sb to do sth	[T] advise sb to do sth	[T] advise sb to do sth	[T] advise sb to do sth	[T] advise sb to do sth	[T] ~sb to do sth
D	persuade	[T] persuade sb to do sth	[T] persuade sb to do sth	[T] persuade sb to do sth	[T] persuade sb to do sth	[T] persuade sb to do sth	~sb to do sth

As can be seen, in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, collocations, which Herbst (1996: 329) calls *pattern illustrations*, spell out syntactic information in full. They show the verb itself and its complementation structure, which is typically represented by means of words and the abbreviations *sb* and *sth*, e.g., [want sb to do sth] or [hate sb doing sth] (LDOCE3-5) and [want sb/sth to do sth] or [hate sb/sth doing sth] (MEDAL1-2). In OALDCE8, in turn, verb pattern representations are referred to as *verb frames* (OALDCE8: R5-R8). In contrast to pattern illustrations, the verb is as a rule omitted from a verb frame and is replaced by the tilde, e.g., [~sb/sth to do sth] (*want*) or [~sb/sth doing sth] (*hate*). Table 12 reveals that the verb features only in the OALDCE8 frame for *report*, [be reported to be/have sth]. The explanatory section of the dictionary (OALDCE8: R8) makes it clear that when a verb is used only in the passive, the frame includes the verb itself and, naturally, is put in the passive.[115]

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[115] Irrespective of the difference between pattern illustrations (LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2) and verb frames (OALDCE8) with respect to the presence / absence of the verb, the two modes of supplying information on verb syntax are discussed together. Klotz (1999: 40) suspects that the introduction of pattern illustrations into pedagogical dictionaries resulted from the realization that even transparent verb coding systems "might mean asking too much of users because of the technicality of codes". Yet, Rundell (1998: 330) still refers to pattern illustrations as codes. Herbst (1996: 329) traces the ancestry of pattern illustrations back to bilingual dictionaries, but points out that they "had always been used for some adjective and noun patterns in OALD". However, Tables 14-16, discussed below, suggest that to convey information on grammatical collocations with nouns, OALDCE2-8 employ frames similar to those for verbs, rather than pattern illustrations, e.g., [~(on/about sb/sth)] for *information* in OALDCE4-8, or [out of ~(to sb)] and [out of ~(to …)] for *kindness* in OALDCE3 and OALDCE2, respectively. It is only in OALDCE1 that nouns are given together with their collocates, e.g., [out of kindness (to …)], which resembles pattern illustrations. The aforementioned Herbst's remark must concern OALDCE1-5, where both pattern illustrations (OALDCE1) and frames (OALDCE2-5) are employed in fact to account for the syntax of nouns. This suggests that the terms *pattern illustrations* and *frames* can be used interchangeably, which further justifies their joint discussion in what follows. Besides, they appear side by side even in OALDCE8 (R5): "[i]n the dictionary, the different patterns (or 'verb frames') in which a verb can be used are shown in bold type". It is worth noting that in MEDAL1-2, [+ what/who/how etc] and [+ (that)] indicate the type of clausal objects of *guess* and *hope*, respectively, whereas in the case of *think*, the pattern illustration includes also the verb: [think (that)]. In LDOCE4-5, any verbs are absent from the string [always + adv/prep] for the complex transitive *slip*. In LDOCE3, in turn, the verb is

Not only verb frames, but also pattern illustrations are printed in bold, and usually precede relevant examples. However, they do not entail dispensing with verb symbols in the dictionaries. As a matter of fact, verbs are classified into intransitive [I], transitive [T] and linking [linking verb]. In all the dictionaries taken into account, [I], [T] and [linking verb] usually precede definitions.[116] However, in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, when a verb in all its senses represents the same verb category, verb class information follows the part of speech label and precedes all the numbered senses. In OALDCE8, the label [linking verb] can also be found in such a position (*seem*), but [I] is typically given at the start of each sense, even if a verb is always intransitive (*arrive*). Besides, a verb which is transitive in all senses is marked *verb*; [T] is not given. This decision to leave out [T] was motivated by the fact that transitive verbs are most common (OALDCE8: R5). This unmarkedness of transitivity is revealed in Table 12, which shows that in OALDCE8, unlike in the other dictionaries under consideration, the verbs *have, lack, confirm, deny, hate, appoint, name, let, envy, blame, remind, persuade* are not coded [T]. Whether the part of speech label *verb* can serve a useful function as a transitivity marker is open to question. It seems that, being more general than even such crude indicators of transitivity as [T] or [Vn], it can generate some confusion, or dictionary users unaccustomed to its new function may remain ignorant of its role.[117]

Herbst (1996: 331) notes that pattern illustrations prove inadequate to represent intransitivity, in the case of which the verb would simply be repeated. Needless to say, verb frames cannot serve this purpose, either. Thus, as shown in Table 12, *arrive* and *matter* are only coded [I]. The table makes it also clear that in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, pattern illustrations are not given for the basic constructions with copular verbs,

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present: [slip sth around/into/through]. Such cases prove that it is the borderline between pattern illustrations and verb frames was crossed even in a single dictionary.

[116] The fact that [I], [T] and [linking verb] are not distributed like pattern illustrations is brought out by square brackets in Table 12.

[117] Compare the discussion about the unmarkedness of noun countability in section 1.4.3.2. Admittedly, in the Longman dictionaries considered, [T] does not accompany a few complex transitive constructions: [see sb home], apparently treated as a fixed phrase, and [get sth fixed/done/mended etc] (LDOCE3) as well as [be reported to be/do sth] (LDOCE4-5). Otherwise, however, in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, verbs which are transitive in all the senses are coded [T].

which are simply accompanied by the label [linking verb]. In MEDAL1-2 even the label [linking verb] is missing from the entry for *seem*. In OALDCE8, by contrast, verb frames specify the type of subject complement, as in [[linking verb] +adj.] (*become, seem*) and [[linking verb] +noun] (*be, prove*).

Table 12 indicates that in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, pattern illustrations do not show all monotransitive constructions, but only those with clausal objects e.g., [think (that)] (LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2). When the object is nominal, usually only [T] is supplied, which confirms Herbst's (1996: 329) remark that human and inanimate objects are not clearly distinguished in pattern illustrations. The pattern illustration [believe sb] in LDOCE3, meant to highlight the need for a personal object and given along with [T], is the only exception in this regard. In OALDCE8, by contrast, the frames [~sb] and [~sth] are used when the object of a transitive verb is a person and a thing, respectively. Naturally, types of clausal objects are also specified in verb frames, e.g., [~ (that)] (OALDCE8).

In all the dictionaries, complementation by *wh*-clauses is represented by a string of wh-words, with *etc* indicating that a verb can also take the *wh*-words which are not listed in a given pattern illustration or frame, as in [ask (sb) why/how/whether etc] (MEDAL1-2), [~sb where, what, etc…] (OALDCE8). Likewise, if the range of possible adverbs or prepositions is wide, [+adv/prep] is used in LDOCE3-5 and OALDCE8, but MEDAL1-2 supply a few typical adverbs or prepositions and with the help of *etc* indicate that the list is not exhaustive, e.g., [slip sth into/around/under etc sth]. When only specific prepositions are allowed in a complementation structure, they are indicated in pattern illustrations and verb frames, e.g., [warn sb about sth] (LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2) or [~(sb) about/against sb/sth] (OALDCE8).[118]

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[118] Although [+adv/prep] does not appear in Table 12 in any pattern illustration extracted from LDOCE3, the notation can be found there, for example, in the entry for *slip4 (loose your hold)*: [I always + adv/prep]. Commenting on patterns like [+ what/who/how etc] for *guess wh-clause* in MEDAL1-2, Tarp (2008: 238) rightly observes that the string of *wh*-words is quite easy to understand, but it is not certain how dictionary users interpret *etc*. Obviously, their reading of *etc* in [slip sth into/around/under etc sth] (MEDAL1-2) raises similar doubts. Hanks (2008a: 105-106), in turn, criticizes lists of prepositions in pattern illustrations and recommends indicating a relevant clause role instead. In his view, pattern illustrations are too verbose and fail to give the right level of generalization. Yet, clause roles, general though they are, probably remain beyond the grasp of many learners of English.

OALDCE8 is the only dictionary listed in Table 12 where a distinction is drawn between complex transitive verbs with a nominal object complement [~sb+noun] (*appoint, name*) and ditransitive verbs with two nominal objects [~sb sth] (*envy, offer*). The dictionary explains (OALDCE8: R6) that the frames with a nominal object complement and two nominal objects are purposely different. In the other dictionaries, [sth] is used to represent a nominal object complement, e.g., [appoint sb (as) sth] or [name sb/sth sth] (MEDAL1-2), and it also features in patterns for ditransitive verbs with two nominal objects, e.g., [envy sb sth] or [offer sb sth] (LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2). Typical nominal object complements in complex transitive structures are simply listed, e.g., [name sb John/Ann etc] (LDOCE3-5).

It should also be pointed out that in the pattern illustration for the complex transitive structure with *appoint* in LDOCE3-5, [appoint (sb) as sth], the brackets should enclose *as* rather than *sb*, as is the case in MEDAL1-2, i.e., [appoint sb (as) sth]. Admittedly, the corresponding example supplied by LDOCE3-5, *O'Connell was appointed as chairman*, implies that the verb is frequently used in the passive; then, the object does not follow the verb, but occupies the subject position and *appoint* is immediately followed by *as*. This presumably accounts for the positioning of brackets in the pattern illustration in LDOCE3-5, which, however, might be taken to mean that *appoint as sth* is possible in the active. Interpretation might be problematic especially in LDOCE3, where another example subsumed under [appoint (sb) as sth], *The School Board appointed her Superintendent of the State Supreme Court in California*, illustrates in fact [appoint sb (as) sth].

Another difference between verb frames and pattern illustrations is the treatment of adjectival object complements in complex transitive constructions. OALDCE8 uses [+adj.] in verb frames for this purpose, as in [~sb+adj.] (*drive*) and [~sb/sth+adj.] (*keep*). The other dictionaries, by contrast, give possible adjectives which perform the role of object complements, e.g., [drive sb crazy/nuts/mad/insane] (LDOCE3-5) or [drive sb crazy/mad/up the wall/round the bend] (MEDAL1-2) as well as [keep sb warm/safe etc] [keep sth clean/open etc] (LDOCE3) or [keep sth clean/tidy] [keep sb busy/amused/occupied] (LDOCE4-5). Undoubtedly, verb frames are more condensed, but they can be helpful only when dictionary users know what [+adj.] stands for. The adjectives listed in pattern illustrations, in turn, take up more space, but in the absence of *etc* doubts

may arise whether only they can be used with a given verb. When *etc* is present, the question remains whether adjectival object complements form a truly open set, or maybe dictionary users are expected to grasp the unifying thread of meaning and make confident predictions as to which other adjectives can perform the function. It transpires that even the forward slash itself may be problematic. As Prinsloo and De Schryver (2002: 87) point out, "[i]f the symbol '/' is taken to mean 'or' without any other type of guidance, then the compilers often assume too many decoding abilities on the part of the user. Only for the more advanced users can 'groups of words' successfully be separated by forward slashes".

Finally, it needs to be noted that only OALDCE8 and LDOCE3 signal constraints on the passivization of *lack* and *have*, respectively. Admittedly, restrictions on the passivization of *have* are recognized in MEDAL1-2, but the information is placed in the grammar boxes for the verb and not in the entries themselves.

Pattern illustrations made it possible for lexicographers to keep explanatory sections remarkably short. In LDOCE3, an accessible explanation of verb syntax takes about half a page (LDOCE3: xiv-xv). In LDOCE4-5, grammar codes and patterns are simply listed and briefly explained on page ii. Even shorter lists with concise definitions can be found inside the front cover in MEDAL1 and inside the front cover flap in MEDAL2. More space is devoted to verb frames in OALDCE8, whose structure is described on pages R5-R8.

The methods of conveying information on verb syntax under discussion met with enthusiastic reception on the part of (meta)lexicographers. Herbst (1996: 329) holds that the main advantage of pattern illustrations is that they do not require any knowledge of grammatical terminology to be understood. This makes them attractive especially to those learners whose familiarity with grammar is quite basic or who consult dictionaries only sporadically. Yet, even advanced users are believed to appreciate this kind of syntactic guidance. Heuberger (2000: 65) praises pattern illustrations for their "unrivalled user-friendliness" and lack of drawbacks. In his opinion, they made it possible for lexicographers to reconcile accuracy and user-friendliness in the presentation of verb syntax. Similarly, Ichikawa et al. (2005: 120) consider such explicit syntactic information "to be on the right track" from the point of view of user-friendliness.

Clear and accessible as they seem to be, pattern illustrations constitute a space-consuming method of presenting verb complementation, which

confirms Nesi's (2000: 74) remark that lexicographers have yet to find an economical alternative to codes. Even the swung bar in OALDCE8 verb frames, a space-saving device, does not remedy the situation. Admittedly, Prinsloo and De Schryver (2002: 72) observe that "[i]ncreased text density, which should obviously stand in relation to the decoding skills of the target user, can – especially in paper dictionaries – be a virtue as long as that user can unambiguously retrieve the information." It is not known, however, whether the latter condition is met and, consequently, whether verb frames, which typically do not repeat the headword, are as clear to dictionary users as pattern illustrations, where the verb is usually given. Tarp (2008: 238), for example, is convinced that including verbs in pattern illustrations facilitates comprehension.

Pattern illustrations, indistinguishable from collocational information, were found the epitome of the blurred distinction between grammar and lexis (Herbst 1996: 333). Nevertheless, this radical simplification of verb coding systems raises doubts as to whether such "phrases and collocations can do the same job as codes" (Aarts 1999: 28).[119] Herbst (1996: 329) rightly points out that pattern illustrations can lead to confusion with respect to dynamic and stative verbs. For example, he wonders whether [want to do sth] corresponds to the LDOCE3 example *She wanted to be in Paris*, or [seem to do sth] – to *The rainbow seemed to end on the hillside*. Tarp (2008: 238), in turn, concedes that the latest editions of LDOCE and MEDAL have made an important contribution to the transparency of coding systems, but emphasizes that the dictionaries move now between high and low levels of abstraction. In his view, some additional mental effort might be in consequence required to proceed from abstract symbols, such as [T], to specific words on detailed lists of possible objects or complements. While abstract notions and specific lexical items indeed coexist in pattern illustrations in LDOCE3-5 and MEDAL1-2, a considerable degree of simplicity is ultimately generated, which is no doubt the key advantage of the systems. Besides, in OALDCE8 verb frames, the imbalance between the abstract and the specific is to some extent reduced inasmuch as typical nominal or adjectival object complements are not listed, but only their grammatical category is indicated: ([+noun], [+adj.]).

All in all, in LDOCE3-5, MEDAL1-2 and OALDCE8, verb complementation patterns are no longer coded, but illustrated by easily accessible

[119] This question is addressed in section 1.5.

collocations. In this respect, the dictionaries pursue "the most distinctive path" (Herbst 1996: 354) in the presentation of verb syntax and have gone a step further in this area than the other pedagogical dictionaries.

1.4.3.1.5. Conclusions

The above analysis of verb codes in the history of pedagogical lexicography traces "the concerted effort" (Rundell 1999: 45) undertaken to abandon opaque, but descriptively powerful coding systems for the sake of a more accessible, surface-grammar approach. As shown in the preceding sections, the evolution has proceeded from opaque, through mnemonic to fully transparent systems. Today, learners of English do not have to know much about grammar to use codes. The form of codes does not require them to familiarize themselves with any explanatory material. Besides, codes are usually interspersed among examples, rather than bunched together far from sentences instantiating the patterns they represent, which is another factor facilitating their use. Finally, in some dictionaries, complementation patterns are not coded, but explicitly shown in pattern illustrations.

Boosting the accessibility of verb codes has its ramifications – reduced accuracy and more space-consuming form. The simplification of codes leads to their ambiguity, since distinctions between underlyingly different complementation patterns are blurred. Nonetheless, the tendency to make verb codes less abbreviated and impenetrable is seen as welcome and desirable, even at the expense of theoretical accuracy (Colleman 2002: 67, Dziemianko 2006: 16, Heath 1982: 106, Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 100, Rundell 1998: 330, Van der Meer – Sansome 2001: 291). Views like that held by Hanks (2008a: 108, 126), who sees substituting word classes for clause roles as "retrograde steps" or "throwing out the baby with the bathwater", and maintains that descriptive accuracy in learners' dictionaries is no less important than simplicity, are few and far between. Nielsen (1995: 202) rightly observes that dictionary compilation is often a compromise between clarity and the level of detail, but he hastens to add that the former should never be sacrificed for the latter. After all, the pedagogical perspective needs to be kept in mind; target dictionary users are typically uninterested in the arcana of English grammar, but they look for answers to much more straightforward questions. In general, it seems that the conclusion reached my Moon (2007: 174) best encapsulates the main developments:

> [t]here has been a move away from highly codified grammatical information: abbreviations are minimalistic and relatively self-evident … and structures are often explicitly shown as patterns. The benefits for the user are obvious, although in order to compensate for the greater lengthiness of entries, dictionaries … have lost some kinds of information, such as … grammatical detail.

Yet, transparent verb codes, clearer, but also longer, more ambiguous and more alike in form than in the past, are still far from uniform or homogeneous. As a matter of fact, there is important variation at a detailed level. On the one hand, the use of one verb symbol [V] in codes usually entails reference to only formal categories in the representation of verb patterns.[120] On the other hand, when the main verb classes are distinguished and assigned their own symbols, such as [I], [L] or [T], both formal and functional categories are employed to code verb complementation.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from the analysis is the fact that the two varieties of transparent verb codes, formal and functional-formal, are not equally frequent. Formal codes feature in eight volumes (COBUILD2-6 and OALDCE5-7), while functional-formal – in six (LDOCE2, COBUILD1, CIDE and CALD1-3). Even though the advantage of the formal system boils down to only two publications, it proves more notable when attention is paid to changes in verb coding systems over time and the permanence of the adopted solutions. Details are presented schematically in Figure 5.

[120] As noted above, COBUILD1 is the exception in this respect, since objects, complements and adjuncts are coded there as well, notwithstanding one verb symbol [V].

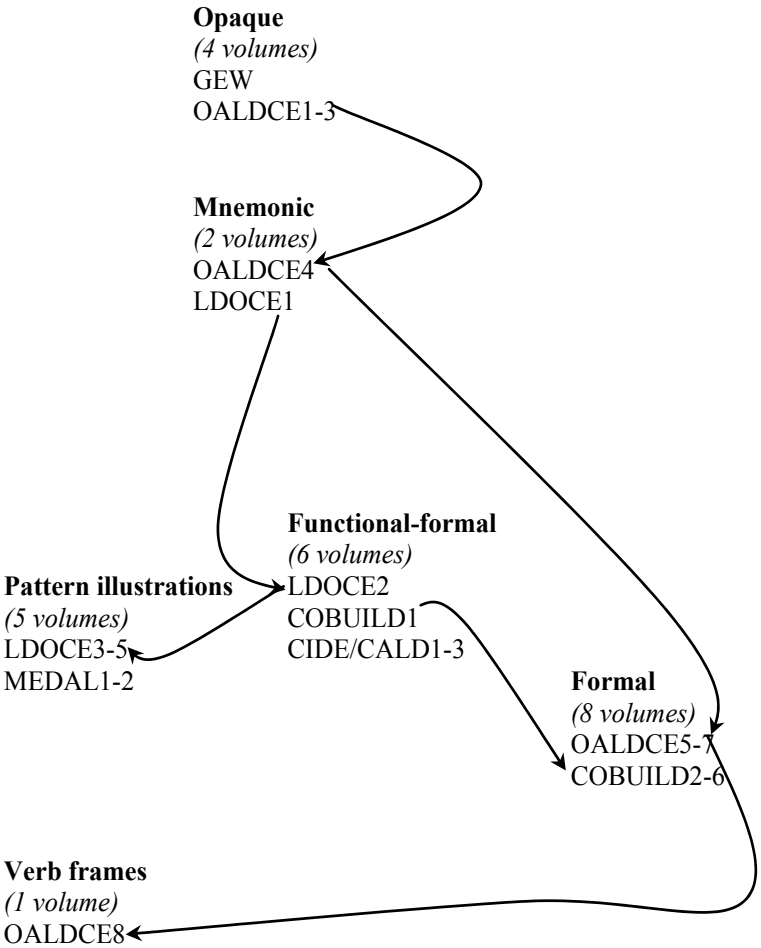

Figure 5. Evolution of verb coding systems

As can be seen, OALDCE, which originally featured opaque codes, rejected them in favor of mnemonic ones in the fourth edition, only to adopt formal verb codes in the fifth one. The dictionary did not essentially change its approach to verb codes in the years 1995-2010, that is until the eighth edition was brought out. In OALDCE8 verb frames took the place of formal codes. LDOCE pursued a different path. In the second edition, the mnemonic system, implemented in the beginning, was supplanted by the functional-formal one. Soon afterwards, in LDOCE3, pattern illustrations superseded the functional-formal system. It is also this more descriptive way of conveying information on verb syntax that MEDAL adopted from

the outset. Functional-formal systems, in turn, were initially used in other two big titles in pedagogical lexicography, i.e., COBUILD and CIDE/CALD, of which only CALD has remained faithful to this solution. COBUILD, by contrast, quickly discarded functional categories; already in the second edition the dictionary started to rely on a system structured around formal ones. It is the formal system of verb codes that has been employed in COBUILD ever since. Importantly, then, while the functional-formal system has been replaced by the formal one (in COBUILD), the reverse has never happened. In other words, the formal system has never been sacrificed for the functional-formal one. It is also worth noting that before LDOCE and COBUILD desisted from using functional-formal verb codes, they had implemented them only in one single edition each.

Thus, it appears that the coding system with one verb symbol and formal categories of linguistic description employed to show verb complementation patterns represents the mainstream approach to coding verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries. First of all, identified in eight volumes, it prevails in learners' dictionaries. Besides, once adopted, it has never been immediately supplanted by any other method of coding syntactic information on verbs, and in this respect it constitutes a lasting solution in the area of coding systems. As pointed out above, it features consistently in five editions of COBUILD and in three editions of OALDCE. Admittedly, in OALDCE8 verb frames are used instead. Yet, even before this descriptive approach to conveying information on verb syntax was employed, formal codes had been used for 15 years in the previous three editions of the dictionary.

The coding system which has been mainstreamed in pedagogical lexicography can be contrasted with the system that may be seen as an alternative one, which relies on symbols for the main verb classes and uses functional categories in verb pattern representation. Not only can it be found in fewer volumes, but it often proved to be only a transitional stage in the development of coding systems. As mentioned above, in LDOCE it was implemented only in the second edition and then gave way to pattern illustrations. The alternative system was present in COBUILD1 only in part, since there was essentially one verb code, rather than a few codes for the main verb categories. However, even in this dictionary the functional symbols used in verb codes were in later editions supplanted by formal categories, thereby turning the system into a fully-fledged mainstream one. As a matter of fact, the alternative approach remains a feature of CALD only.

By way of a summary, Table 13 encapsulates the distinction between mainstream and alternative verb coding systems.

Table 13. Types of verb coding system: A generalization

Verb classes	[V] no basic verb classes coded	[T], [I], [L] the basic verb classes coded
Levels of linguistic description	formal	functional-formal
Status	prevalent/predominant adopted consistently	less frequent often transitional
Most recently in	COBUILD6, OALDCE7	CALD3
Coding system type / name	'mainstream'	'alternative'

While time will tell whether mainstream and alternative systems will continue to distinguish COBUILD from CALD, it is obvious that the two approaches to coding verb syntax differ in the inventory of symbols used in codes as well as in status, as explained above. Obviously, the foregoing analysis of transparent verb coding systems and the proposed classification reveal nothing about the actual usefulness of these two code types. Relevant empirical studies are referred to in section 1.5.

Overall, the above discussion, based on a cross-section of verbs representing different categories, shows that the evolution of verb coding systems in pedagogical dictionaries has been directed from more sophisticated to less complex, though more ambiguous and space-consuming forms. While syntactic codes in learners' dictionaries were first developed for verbs, they have not remained confined to this part of speech. The next section presents an overview of codes for the selected sample of nouns.

1.4.3.2. Noun codes

As mentioned in section 1.3, noun codes were first consistently employed in LDOCE1. Yet, it does not mean that they were altogether absent from the pedagogical dictionaries published before 1978, or that lexicographers took no interest in noun syntax. As a matter of fact, *A Guide to Patterns and Usage of English* (1956) by Hornby features not only verb patterns, but also noun and adjective patterns. The four noun patterns (NP1-NP4)

described there show "the ways in which a noun may be modified other than by determinatives, adjectives, and adjective equivalents" (Hornby 1956: 127).[121] However, the patterns were not incorporated in the early editions of OALDCE. It is claimed that the failure to provide adequate syntactic information on nouns from the outset has left its mark on the dictionary (Heath 1982: 96). Yet, the criticism of the early editions of OALDCE for not giving a systematic account of noun complementation should be limited to the absence of *codes* similar to those for verb patterns. Although the failure to refer to noun patterns by means of the codes introduced in the *Guide* (NP1-NP4) was a serious omission indeed, Hornby's (1956) insight into noun complementation largely underlay the compilation of his dictionaries (Cowie 1999a: 84, 2004: 42, 2009: 405). Besides, it was also Hornby who provided a solid foundation for further systems of noun codes (Cowie 2009: 405). The fact remains that noun complementation received considerably less attention in linguistic theory than the complementation of verbs (Herbst 1988: 265). Thus, before the analysis of noun codes in pedagogical dictionaries is presented, it is worth paying attention to noun patterns as such.

In general, each word class is considered to have a set of patterns that are associated with it (Hunston – Francis 2000: 178).[122] In crude terms, patterns can be defined as all the words and structures which are regularly associated with a given word and which contribute to its meaning (Hunston – Francis 2000: 37). Hanks (2008b: 222) groups pattern elements

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[121] More specifically, NP1 represents *noun x to-infinitive (e.g. his anxiety to help)*, NP2 – *noun x preposition x (pro)noun (e.g. her anxiety for news)*, NP3 – *noun x that-clause (e.g. the fact that you speak English well)* and NP4 – *noun x preposition x conjunctive x phrase or clause (e.g. his knowledge of how to do it / of how Gree had done it)* (Hornby 1956: 127).

[122] Within the framework of pattern grammar (Hunston – Francis 2000), word classes, considered "extremely fuzzy categories", are even said to be nothing but post hoc generalizations from patterns (Hunston 2004: 104). A discussion of patterns at this place, once verb codes have already been analyzed, might seem inappropriate. Yet, drawing verb patterns from the grammar by Quirk at al. (1985) and explaining their composition in detail leave no doubt as to what complementation structures were checked in dictionaries. By contrast, the definitions of the selected noun classes in section 1.4.1, based on the same source, do not necessarily imply that nouns can be interpreted from the point of view of their patterns, especially considering the pre-nominal position of articles, verb patterns being typically (or superficially) associated with complementation (Hunston – Francis 2000: 37).

into preferred collocations, that is individual words that frequently occur in close proximity to a target word, and colligations, or words which stay in grammatical relationships with it. He also stresses that the scope of pattern elements can range from individual lexical items to large classes and it is within that continuum that each word has its own set of preferences.[123]

Importantly, patterns refer not only to word complementation, i.e., the elements which follow a given word; they can also include the elements which precede the word (Hunston – Francis 2000: 51). Verbs, for example, may need to be followed by a phrase or a clause, or a combination of these. Yet, typical subjects of some verbs, e.g. plural subjects of reciprocal verbs, belong to their patterns as well (Hunston – Francis 2000: 49).[124] Noun patterns are considered close to verb patterns (Hunston – Francis 2000: 50). For one thing, they are often complementation patterns. McCorduck (1993: 92) defines noun complementation as a range of structures, such as prepositions, prepositional phrases as well as finite or non-finite clauses or verb phrases which follow a noun. More generally, Francis, Hunston and Manning (1998: vi) see a noun pattern as the noun and the accompanying words which are typical of or significant for that particular noun. For example, they find singular and plural verbs highly significant for collective nouns (Francis – Hunston – Manning 1998: 21-24). Syntactic patterns of nouns and verbs can even include the same clause

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[123] Genuine elements of any pattern should be distinguished from the structures which can occur with any item in the same class, thereby forming a chance concatenation of lexical items. Patterns, by definition, recur. Besides, the combination of words in a pattern must depend on a particular word choice, since the components of a pattern "exist in a relationship of semantic co-dependency with the node word" (Hunston 2004: 108-109). The following examples, cited after Hunston (2004: 108), illustrate the point:
42. *...it added a recommendation that mining development ... be halted* (dependency between recommendation and the that-clause),
43. *In other words, what's the recommendation that we're making?* (no dependency).
In the later case, the relative clause does not belong to the pattern, because it can qualify virtually any noun and does not touch on the essence of the noun it refers to.

[124] Hanks (2008a: 94) argues that the subject is part and parcel of any verb pattern and should be covered by the grammatical apparatus of a pedagogical dictionary. The analysis in section 1.4.3.1 shows that verb subjects are not reflected in codes. Relevant information is conveyed by uncoded means: contextual definitions, examples as well as (usually bracketed) notes, guide words and adjuncts accompanying analytical definitions, e.g., *used of an X, of an X, as of an X* (Kipfer 1984: 90, Hanks 1987: 118).

types, e.g., a *that*-clause (*to suggest that, a suggestion that*) or a *to*-infinitive (*to decide to do sth, a decision to do sth*) (Hunston – Francis 2000: 47, 52, 57).[125] Noun patterns include also the elements which need to come before a given noun. Countable nouns, for instance, are associated with particular patterns in which, in the singular, they are preceded by the definite or indefinite article. Uncountable nouns, by contrast, differ from countable ones in their immediate patterning inasmuch as they are not used with the indefinite article, but can be used with the zero article (Hunston – Francis 2000: 179).

Noun syntax is an area of English grammar which is troublesome for foreign learners. Countability as well as prepositions and clause-types which can be used with nouns are among the most important pieces of grammatical information for foreign learners (Heath 1982: 101). In view of the fact that noun syntax is "unpredictable and idiosyncratic", relevant information should be provided in dictionaries (McCorduck 1993: 92). What is more, nouns participate in grammatical contrasts that go beyond valence, and a dictionary, especially one aimed at advanced language learners, ought to present such information as well. For example, "[n]ouns can have count or non-count status … and their selection is context-bound. *There are risks in doing this, there is a risk in doing this* and *there is risk involved* are all found [in corpora]; you *took a risk* is possible, but **you took risk* (non-count, singular) is not." (Fillmore 2009: 76-77). McCorduck (1993: 109), in turn, stresses the need for guidance on subject-verb concord, which is likely to cause problems for foreign learners when morphologically singular nouns allow plural verbs.

Initially, as mentioned above, noun syntax got little attention in dictionaries for foreign learners of English. Information on noun complementation was considered "lacking and insufficient", and the incomplete treatment of noun syntax was denounced as a "glaring weakness" (McCorduck 1993:

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[125] Yet, noun patterns should not be established solely on the basis of verb patterns. For one thing, a verb cannot always be substituted for a noun, as amply illustrated by Cowie (2004: 42). For another, the preposition used with a noun does not always go with the corresponding verb. Hornby (1956: 132) cites the example of *discussion* and *discuss*, which, as he puts it, "are known only when the learner is familiar with the patterns: *a discussion* (*with* somebody, *between* X and Y) *on* (*about*) a problem; to *discuss* a problem *with* somebody". This proves that learners can be encouraged to make associations between noun and verb patterns, but they also need to be warned against making false analogies (Herbst 1988: 265, Hunston – Francis 2000: 7).

92, 146). Heath's (1982: 103) analysis of the treatment of nouns in LDOCE1 and OALDCE3 made him come to the sad conclusion that pattern information, generally provided for verbs, is missing for most nouns. In brief, even though the need for noun syntax in pedagogical dictionaries has long been recognized, it has not always been fully satisfied.[126]

This relative disregard for nouns in dictionaries, especially in comparison with verbs, might result from the view that nouns are less important than verbs, since they do not have the ability to shape the rest of the sentence in the way verbs do. In other words, it is verbs, not nouns, that determine sentence architecture (Allerton 2006: 147). Besides, the semantic structure of a verb provides information about the actions or relations that are crucial for the interpretation of the sentences they occur in. Nouns, by contrast, merely characterize the entities that participate in those actions or relations. Put differently, verbs predicate, and nouns give arguments in such predication (Fillmore 1994: 105). As such, they are even seen as nothing but verb satellites (Allerton 2006: 148). It is believed that, as Fillmore (1994: 105) finely puts it, "the job of nouns is limited to that of giving … the cast of characters and the list of props" chosen by verbs. Admittedly, there are also claims that nouns should not be reduced to just "the names of (sets of) 'things'", since some nouns, especially those which are semantically related to verbs, are inherently capable of even greater complexity than verbs (Fillmore 1994: 106). Yet, the view that the verb is the pivot of the clause (Allerton 1982: 1, Tesnière, quoted in Vater 1978: 22) apparently influenced many lexicographers' decisions.

No wonder, then, that noun codes have not been discussed in the metalexicographic literature anywhere near as thoroughly as verb codes.[127] In particular, a systematic classification of noun codes in (selected) pedagogical dictionaries is hard to come by. Thus, unlike in the case of verbs, no categorization of noun codes already presented in the literature on the subject could be accepted and brought up to date, or otherwise verified in what follows. Unfortunately, chronology could not serve as a reliable criterion for structuring the discussion below, either, since, as will be shown, some recent dictionaries do not differ much in the form of noun codes from those published much earlier. Finally, the for-

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[126] See also section 1.4.2.2., where the coverage of noun and verb patterns in learners' dictionaries is compared.

[127] Wojciechowska (2012: 138) makes similar remarks.

mal-functional distinction is of no help, either, as reference to sentence functions is in general absent from noun codes.

Once the database with noun codes for the selected nouns, given in Table 2, had been created, it became clear that pedagogical dictionaries differ in the number of noun classes which are assigned codes on the one hand, and in the form of codes, on the other. First, the fact that there are nouns (such as reclassifiable and collective) which can have a wider range of patterns than either countable or uncountable nouns was in varying degrees reflected in codes. Some lexicographers introduced "new" noun classes into coding systems (Hunston – Francis 2000: 181). Others tried to convey relevant information without naming any additional noun classes in codes. Still others did not account for them at all with the help of codes. Second, the form of noun codes in learners' dictionaries is by no means uniform. As will be shown below, codes for countable and uncountable nouns proved far from immune to change in the history of pedagogical lexicography, let alone those for other noun categories. Therefore, the noun coding systems discussed in what follows are grouped on the basis of their similarity in two respects: the number of coded noun classes in the selected sample on the one hand, and the form of codes, on the other.

The collation of codes made it clear that in some dictionaries, information on grammatical collocations constitutes an integral part of noun codes.[128] Thus, for the sake of consistency and further comparison, grammatical collocations were extracted also from the other dictionaries. The definition of grammatical collocations by Benson, Benson and Ilson (1990) was accepted as a decisive criterion for the selection. The authors see grammatical collocations as phrases "consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause" (Benson – Benson – Ilson 1990: ix). They distinguish four grammatical collocations with the noun as the dominant word: nouns followed by a preposition (e.g., *apathy towards*), *to*-infinitive (e.g., *a pleasure to do something*) and *that*-clause (e.g., *an oath that he would do his duty*) as well as nouns preceded by a preposition (e.g., *by accident*) (Benson – Benson – Ilson 1990: ix-xi).[129]

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[128] See sections 1.4.3.2.2 (LDOCE1), 1.4.3.2.4 and 1.4.3.2.5 (COBUILD1-6).

[129] Benson, Benson and Ilson (1990: xxiv) differentiate between grammatical collocations and lexical ones, which normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives or clauses, but consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. However, this distinction is

The exploratory investigation below is concerned only with codes for countable, uncountable, reclassifiable and collective nouns. Yet, it is hoped that it will manage to throw a broad light on noun coding systems and stimulate further analyses, updates and extensions.

1.4.3.2.1. (Un)countable

Table 14 presents codes for the selected nouns in GEW, OALDCE1-3 and MEDAL1-2. The dictionaries published a few years ago are discussed together with the earliest pedagogical dictionaries since they all offer codes only for countable and uncountable nouns. GEW is taken into consideration for the sake of consistency, even though labels, rather than codes, are used there.

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by no means uncontested. Cowie (1998b: 225), for example, objects to calling a pattern *grammatical* when it includes a clause. In his view, in a genuine grammatical collocation the dominant word is followed by a preposition. Yet, there is no general consensus over the term *collocation* in the first place (Fontenelle 1998: 191), phraseology being "bedeviled by the proliferation of terms and conflicting uses of the same term" (Cowie 1998b: 210). Focusing on what Benson, Benson and Ilson (1990) define as grammatical collocations was motivated by the abovementioned fact that some dictionaries incorporate such collocations in noun codes, but also by problems with finding lexical collocations in dictionaries. As Benson (1989: 6) notes, some learners' dictionaries published before the 1990s did not include many lexical collocations, and a large number of those which were covered were "hidden" in the entries for collocators. By contrast, collocations with a noun (as the dominant word) and prepositions, infinitives or finite clauses should be given in the respective noun entry (Cowie 2004: 43). Needless to say, lexical collocations are very rarely shown in codes (see section 1.4.3.2.4). Finally, noun collocations with delexical verbs are not analyzed below, because they belong to the lexical type (Fontenelle 1998: 192).

Table 14. Noun codes for (un)countable nouns: GEW, OALDCE1-3, MEDAL1-2

	Noun	**GEW**	**OALDCE1**	**OALDCE2**	**OALDCE3**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**
C	book	–	–	–	–	C [+about/on]	C [+about/on]
C	box	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	bun	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	chair	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	child	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	dog	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	foot	–	–	–	–	C [beneath/under your feet]	C [beneath/under your feet]
C	idea	–	C	–	–	C [+for]	C [+for]
C	pig	–	–	C	C	C	C
C	remark	–	C	C	C	C [+about/on]	C [+about/on]
C	sheep	–	–	–	–	C	C
C	toy	–	–	–	–	C	C
U	abuse	–	U	U	U	U	U
U	advice	Uncountable	U	U	U	U [+on/about] [+that] [on sb's a.] [on the a. of sb]	U [+on/about] [+that] [on sb's a.] [on the a. of sb]
U	anger	Uncountable [in a.]	U [in (a moment of) a.]	U	U	U [in a.]	U [in a.]
U	applause	–	U	U	U	U	U
U	chaos	–	U	U	U	U [in ch.]	U [in ch.]

	Noun	**GEW**	**OALDCE1**	**OALDCE2**	**OALDCE3**	**MEDAL1**	**MEDAL2**
U	equipment	–	U	~~collective noun~~	~~collective noun~~	U	U
U	evidence	–	U [in e.]	U [(be) in~]	U [(be) in~]	U [+of] [+that] [+for/in suport/in favour of]	U [+of] [+that] [+for/in suport/in favour of]
U	furniture	–	U	U	U	U	U
U	information	Uncountable	U	U	[U ~ on/about]	U [+about/on/regarding] [+that]	U [+about/on/regarding] [+that]
U	money	Uncountable	U	U	U	U	U
U	warmth	Uncountable	U	U	U	U	U
U	work	Uncountable [at w.] [out of w.]	U [in (out of) w.] [at w.]	U [in (out of) ~] [at ~]	U [at ~] [in/out of ~]	U[at w.] [in w.] [out of w.]	U [at w.] [in w.] [out of w.]
Recl.	beauty	–	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C
Recl.	beer	–	~~U~~	~~U~~	~~U~~	U, a C	U, a C
Recl.	brick	–	–	C & U	C, U	C, a U	C, a U
Recl.	cake	–	C, U	U & C	C, U	C / U	C / U
Recl.	cheese	–	~~U~~	U… ; C…	U… ; C…	C / U	C / U
Recl.	coffee	–	–	~~U~~	C, U	U, a C	U, a C
Recl.	injustice	–	1 U, 2 C	U… ; C…	U… ; C…	U, a C	U, a C
Recl.	kindness	~~Uncountable [in k. to] [out of k. (to sy.)]~~	1 U [out of k. (to …)], 2 C	1 U [out of ~(to …)], 2 C	1 U [out of ~(to sb)], 2 C	U, a C	U, a C
Recl.	lamb	–	1 C, 2 U	C… ; U…	C… ; U…	C, a U	C, a U

	Noun	GEW	OALDCE1	OALDCE2	OALDCE3	MEDAL1	MEDAL2
Recl.	pleasure	1.Unocuntable. [with p.] 2. Countable.	1 U [with p.], 2 C	1 U, 3 C	1 U, 3 C	U, a C	U, a C
Recl.	regret	–	~~2 U, 3 pl.~~	~~1 U, 2 pl.~~	~~1 U, 2 pl.~~	C / U	C / U
Recl.	talk	–	C & U	C & U	C, U	1 C, 3 U [+of]	1 C, 3 U [+of]
Coll.	aristocracy	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	army	–	–	–	–	~~C, often singular~~	~~C, often singular~~
Coll.	audience	–	–	–	–	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	committee	–	–	–	–	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	crowd	–	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	enemy	–	(collective plural)	(collective pl. with def. art.)	–	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	family	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	C (collective n)	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	government	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C / U [under a g.]~~	~~C / U [under a g.]~~
Coll.	group	–	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C [+of]~~	~~C [+of]~~
Coll.	herd	–	–	–	–	~~C [+of]~~	~~C [+of]~~
Coll.	opposition	–	–	–	–	–	–
Coll.	staff	–	–	–	–	~~singular / U~~	~~singular / U~~

Palmer's interest in the structure of the noun phrase, which he initially called *noun complex*, goes back to 1926, when he introduced his "strikingly modern … analytical approach" and claimed that in a subcategorization of nouns, determiners (articles, possessives and quantifiers) should be considered (Cowie 2009: 389-390). In the introduction to GEW (vi), he points out that

> [o]ne of the greatest difficulties encountered by foreign students of English is to know when a noun refers to a thing that can be counted … or to something that cannot be counted … The problem may be stated in a long series of rules and exceptions, but in this book cases are marked specifically *Countable* or *Uncountable*, often with explanations, and generally with examples.

In this way Palmer introduced the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns into the learner's dictionary. The labels [countable] and [uncountable] are accompanied by half-page information in the front matter, and together with the system of verb codes, discussed in section 1.4.3.1.1, are seen as important innovations (Benson – Benson – Ilson 1986: 228). It should also be noted that already in GEW noun reclassification is signaled by both labels, as shown for *pleasure* in Table 14.

The distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is said to feature prominently in GEW (Cowie 1999a: 46). At first sight, Table 14 does not corroborate this conclusion. As can be seen, GEW labels six uncountable and no countable nouns in the sample. However, the limited word list in GEW accounts for the results. Half of the 12 selected uncountable nouns are headwords in GEW (*advice, anger, information, money, warmth, work*), all of which are appropriately labeled. *Book, child, foot* and *idea* are on the wordlist as well, but they are not marked as countable. Unfortunately, the dictionary does not explain how the lack of any label should be interpreted.

Codes for countable [C] and uncountable [U] nouns were first introduced in OALDCE1 due to space constraints and have become standard symbols thereafter. Manifesting the distinction between the two noun classes with their help was among the priorities listed in OALDCE1 design specifications (Naganuma 1978: 11, Cowie 1998a: 259).

All the selected countable and uncountable nouns were found in OALDCE1-3. Yet, in each dictionary, only two countables are coded [C] (*idea, remark* in OALDCE1 and *pig, remark* in OALDCE2-3), whereas

all uncountables are assigned [U]. OALDCE1 (x) explains that the codes "have been supplied quite liberally but it has not been considered necessary to add them in every case. No learner needs to be told that *book, tree, box* and similar words may be used in the plural." This implies that if nouns are not coded in any way in the entry, they should be assumed to be countable. Only OALDCE3 (xxiv) makes this principle abundantly clear: "when no information is given in a noun entry, it is an obvious countable noun". Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 53) reasonably conclude that [C] should be expected only in the noun entries which feature [U] as well. In other words, all senses of a noun require codes if there is at least one sense that is not countable. However, the non-use of [C] causes problems, since there are nouns in OALDCE3, e.g., *decline, declivity, decree, defect, package* or *paradox*, which are coded as countable ones even though they are not given any other codes in their entries. Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 54) suspect that a reason for coding the nouns could be that they are less common than non-coded countable nouns. Yet, they legitimately wonder why even more infrequent and unfamiliar countable nouns, such as *delphinium, pachyderm, paean, palanquin, pailasse* or *panacea*, receive no code.

An analysis of OALDCE1-3 entries for the countable nouns shown in Table 14 provides evidence for and against the unmarkedness of countability in the dictionaries. On the one hand, in OALDCE1, no senses of *book, box, bun, chair, child, dog, pig, sheep* and *toy* are marked either [C] or [U], which is in line with the rule. Also, in the entry for *idea*, sense 3 is marked [U], while senses 1, 2 and 4 – [C]. Likewise, *remark1* is coded [U], and *remark2* – [C]. On the other hand, however, *foot5* has [U], but no other sense has [C]. OALDCE2, by contrast, proves consistent in its non-use of [C] with nouns which are countable in all their senses; the entries for *pig* and *remark* feature [C] and [U], but those for the other countable nouns in Table 14 do not include any codes. In OALDCE3, the entries for *remark* and *pig* involve [C] and [U]. Yet, *chair1* and *chair3* are not given any codes, although *chair2* is represented as [U]. Also, *foot7* is coded [U], but no code can be found in the other senses.

The policy of countability unmarkedness does not seem to be beneficial to dictionary users. First, they have to be familiar with the principle to properly interpret codeless noun entries. Second, it might prove overoptimistic to assume that they would accept the countability of an English noun by default. As McCorduck (1993: 39) points out, a common inter-

lingual difficulty for learners is that a specific noun may be countable in their mother tongue, but uncountable in English, and the other way around. Third, in the absence of codes, there might not be enough information in the dictionary entry to sensitize users to the need to pay attention to countability in the first place. Therefore, consistent labeling of all nouns (or noun senses) as countable or uncountable is recommended (Heath 1982: 106). Van der Meer (2000: 137) rightly argues that "in the field of the (un)countability of English nouns there is a great need for user guidance". Likewise, Jackson (2002: 135) claims that recording the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is essential, and consistency in this respect could help dictionary users realize that many uncountable nouns in English can be countable in specific contexts, and some supposedly invariably countable nouns may function as uncountables. Scholfield (1982: 188), in turn, suggests that coding all nouns could facilitate entry navigation. For example, a reader trying to understand what *lead* means in *He needed to buy lead* could realize that the noun is used uncountably. If all the noun senses are consistently coded, those marked as countable could be immediately excluded from the search for correct meaning.

Codes for countable [C] and uncountable [U] nouns are used in MEDAL1-2. However, it is obvious from Table 14 that the dictionaries do not assume countability as the unmarked case; [C] appears even when a noun is countable in all its senses (*bun, chair, child, dog, pig, remark, sheep, toy*). Syntactic information in MEDAL is thus given on the level of lexical units, that is, for every single meaning that calls for it, which confirms an observation made by Bogaards (2003: 51).

In OALDCE1-3 and MEDAL1-2, reclassification is signaled by the presence of both [C] and [U] in a noun (sub)entry. The dictionaries do not give codes for collective nouns, although in OALDCE1-3, the label [collective] is occasionally used. In MEDAL1-2, collective nouns are usually coded as countable.[130]

In all the dictionaries, noun codes are positioned in a way similar to verb codes. In general, if a noun has more than one sense and the senses differ in terms of countability, noun codes are located after specific sense numbers. When, in turn, the code applies to all the senses, it is given once,

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[130] See section 1.4.2.1 for comments on the label "can be followed by a singular or plural verb" in MEDAL1-2.

before the sense division in the entry. In the case of reclassifiable nouns, [C] and [U] often precede relevant definitions, as indicated in the table by sense numbers, e.g., [1 U, 2 C] (*beauty* OALDCE1-3, MEDAL1-2). Alternatively, both codes appear before one definition. Then, the comma [,] the ampersand [&] or the slash [/] is given in the table between [C] and [U], depending on dictionary conventions.[131] In OALDCE1-3 some definitions of reclassifiable nouns are split. The senses are not numbered, even though the definition clearly falls into two parts, usually separated by the semicolon. Each part is then preceded by [C] or [U]. To illustrate,

44. **injustice** … [U] lack of justice; [C] unjust act, etc (OALDCE3).

Such positioning of codes is shown in Table 14 with the help of the ellipsis sign […], e.g., [U… ; C…] (*injustice*, OALDCE2-3). When meanings are closely related, a similar strategy is adopted in MEDAL1-2; a definition is divided into two parts as well, but the second part is introduced by [a], and each subsense is accompanied by a relevant noun code. To illustrate, MEDAL1 gives the following definition of *injustice*:

45. **injustice** … [U] failure to treat someone fairly and to represent their rights (*examples*) a. [C] an unfair action or event (*examples*),

hence [U, a C] in Table 14.

It is evident from Table 14 that all dictionaries explicitly indicate the prepositions and clausal complementation that the selected nouns take. The largest number of grammatical collocations can be found in MEDAL1-2. The collocations are not as a rule given right after the noun code, but usually follow the definition and, where present, (some) example sentences. The separation of codes from typical grammatical collocates is reflected in the table by square brackets around the latter, e.g., [C [+about/on]] (*remark* MEDAL1-2). By contrast, when a code immediately precedes prepositional or clausal collocates, the code and the collo-

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[131] OALDCE1 (xi) explains that "[i]n many cases the indications [C] and [U] have been placed together and the definitions combined. Thus *toddy* is defined as '(a drink made of) spirits…' When meaning 'spirits' it is [U]. When meaning 'a drink of spirits…' it is [C]. Such combined definitions, made to economize on space, will readily be understood". This is an optimistic assumption. Many critical comments on syntactically overloaded definitions can be found in Hanks (1979: 33, 1987: 116-118) or Rundell (1999: 43).

cates are all enclosed in brackets. For example, in OALDCE3, the prepositions which go with *information* are given right after the code [U ~ on/about].[132] The swung dash is used in OALDCE2-3 to represent the repetition of the headword within the entry. Even though it does save space, it made headwords and syntactic structures harder to recognize and baffled some dictionary users (Hanks 2008a: 93). In OALDCE1, in turn, headwords are embedded into collocation patterns, as shown in Table 14 by the first letter of the repeated headword followed by the full stop, e.g., [in (out of) w.] and [at w.] for *work*. It should also be noted that probably due to the small size of the sample, Table 14 does not corroborate a claim by Cowie (2004: 42) that the coverage of noun-preposition collocations improved in OALDCE2 in comparison with OALDCE1. As a matter of fact, only two more such collocations (*in anger, with pleasure*) have been found in the former dictionary.

Finally, OALDCE1-3 and MEDAL1-2 offer markedly different code explanations. In a few paragraphs in the front matter, OALDCE1-3 outline problems that the use of nouns can cause for foreign learners, explain what [C], [U] and their combinations mean as well as indicate the basic determiners and quantifiers which countable and uncountable nouns require or allow. MEDAL1-2, by contrast, list noun codes inside the front cover with only brief definitions and examples of nouns thus coded, i.e., "[C] countable nouns that are used with *a* or *an* or a number and have a plural: *car, soldier*. [U] uncountable nouns that cannot be used with *a* or *an* or a number and have no plural: *happiness, pasta*."

In conclusion, with the exception of GEW, where the labels [countable] and [uncountable] are used, the dictionaries discussed above have similar coding systems inasmuch as they code countable and uncountable nouns with the help of [C] and [U], and signal reclassification by a combination of these two codes. In OALDCE1-3, however, countability is unmarked, so [C] is justified only when a noun in at least one sense in uncountable. This policy, whose implementation in the dictionaries proved quite erratic, might conceal important information from dictionary users unaware of the meaningful absence of the code. In MEDAL1-2, by contrast, both countable and uncountable nouns are coded as a matter of routine, which appears to better cater for dictionary users' needs. Finally,

[132] Unless clearly stated otherwise, in subsequent tables, the distribution of noun codes and collocations is presented in the same way as in Table 14.

none of the dictionaries discussed above developed a coding system which would make it possible to consistently indicate the syntactic properties of collective nouns. The next section groups the dictionaries which went a step further in their representation of noun syntax with the help of codes.

1.4.3.2.2. (Un)countable and collective

In the dictionaries given in Table 15, i.e., LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5 and CALD1-2, codes and labels are used to mark not only the countable/uncountable distinction, but also collective nouns.

Table 15. Noun codes for (un)countable and collective nouns: LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5, CALD1-2

	Noun	**LDOCE1**	**OALDCE4**	**OALDCE5**	**CALD1**	**CALD2**
C	book	–	C	C	C	C
C	box	C	C	C	C	C
C	bun	–	–	–	C	C
C	chair	C	C	C	C	C
C	child	[C; my+N]	–	–	C	C
C	dog	C	C	C	C	C
C	foot	C	C	C	C	C
C	idea	C	C	C	C [+to infinitive]	C [+to infinitive]
C	pig	C	C	–	C	C
C	remark	[C (about, on)]	C	C	C	C
C	sheep	Wn3	–	–	C	C
C	toy	C	–	–	C	C
U	abuse	U	U	U	U	U
U	advice	U	U	U	U [+to infinitive]	U [+to infinitive]
U	anger	U	U	[U ~ (at sb/sth)]	U	U
U	applause	U	U	U	U	U
U	chaos	[U, S]	U	U	U	U
U	equipment	U	U	U	U	U

	Noun	**LDOCE1**	**OALDCE4**	**OALDCE5**	**CALD1**	**CALD2**
U	evidence	[U (of, for), U5]	[U ~ (to do sth/that…)]	[U ~ (for sth/to do sth/that…)]	U [+to infinitive] [+that]	U [+to infinitive] [+that]
U	furniture	U	U	U	U	U
U	information	U	U [~ (on/about sb/sth)]	[U ~ (on/about sb/sth)]	U [+that]	U [+that]
U	money	U	U	U	U	U
U	warmth	U	U	U	U	U
U	work	[U not + the]	U	U	U	U
Recl.	beauty	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	beer	1 U, 2 C	a) U, b) C	a) U, b) C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	brick	C; U	C, U	C, U	~~C~~	~~C~~
Recl.	cake	1 U, 2 C	C, U	C, U	C or U	C or U
Recl.	cheese	U; C	a) U, b) C	a) U, b) C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	coffee	C; U	a) U, b) C	a) U, b) C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	injustice	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	kindness	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C
Recl.	lamb	1 U, 2 C	a) C, b) U	a) C, b) U	C or U	C or U
Recl.	pleasure	1 U; 4 C	a) U, b) C	a) U, b) C	C or U [+to infinitive]	C or U [+to infinitive]
Recl.	regret	~~[U (at)]~~	U, C	U, C	C or U	C or U
Recl.	talk	1 U, 2 C	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 3 U	1 C, 3 U
Coll.	aristocracy	[(the) GC]	CGp	CGp	group noun C	group noun C
Coll.	army	–	CGp	CGp	group noun	group noun
Coll.	audience	GC	CGp	CGp	group noun C	group noun C
Coll.	committee	GC	CGp	CGp	group noun C	group noun C
Coll.	crowd	GC	CGp	CGp	group noun [C]	group noun [C]
Coll.	enemy	–	Gp	Gp	~~C usually singular~~	~~C usually singular~~
Coll.	family	GC	CGp	CGp	group noun, [C or U]	group noun [C or U]
Coll.	government	GC	CGp	CGp	group noun C	group noun C
Coll.	group	GC	CGp	CGp	~~C~~	~~C~~
Coll.	herd	–	~~C~~	~~C~~	group noun C	group noun, C
Coll.	opposition	–	Gp	Gp	group noun S	group noun S
Coll.	staff	GC	C usu sing, Gp	C usu sing, Gp	group noun S	group noun S

As can be seen, LDOCE1, apart from [C] and [U], has the code [GC] for group (collective) countable nouns. The table fails to show that LDOCE1 employs [GU] for group uncountable nouns, e.g., *admiralty*. This code is also used with adjectives which function as noun phrase heads and have generic reference, e.g., *the accused*. These codes substantiate the dictionary editors' claim that with regard to nouns, their concord with verbs came into focus (Procter 1976: 315). In LDOCE1, like in OALDCE1-3, not all countable nouns are coded [C], but only those which are polysemous and at least in one sense get a different code (Akkerman 1989: 75, Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 21). The prevalence of countable nouns in English is given in justification of the policy (LDOCE1: xxix).

A closer look at the entries for the selected countable nouns suggests that the dictionary strictly adheres to the principle of countability unmarkedness. In the entries for *book* and *bun* there are no codes, which justifies the absence of [C] from Table 15. The nouns which are accompanied by [C] in the table (*box, chair, child, dog, foot, idea, pig, remark, toy*), in turn, are given also other codes in their entries. In *box5* and *chair5*, [*the* + R] means that the nouns in the respective senses are names, "or namelike", and are used with the definite article (LDOCE1: xxx).[133] [U] goes with *foot3-5, idea1,5, pig3* and *remark2*. In addition, in *foot8* there is [P] to indicate that the noun can be used with plural verbs and pronouns (LDOCE1: xxx). Interestingly, [C] accompanies a noun sense even when another sense is marked by [C] followed by a number. This is the case in the entries for *child* and *dog*; *child5,6* and *dog4* are coded [C9], which suggests that the nouns in these senses need descriptive words or phrases, just like *buff* [C9]: *a film/tennis buff* (LDOCE1: xxxiv). The code for *toy2*, [A; (C)], means that the headword can perform the function of an adjective when it comes before another noun (LDOCE1: xxix). Finally, [C; *my* + N] for *child2* shows that the noun can function as a vocative preceded by *my* (LDOCE1: xxx).

It is also worth noting that *chaos*, one of the uncountable nouns listed in Table 15, is coded [U, S]. [S] accompanies nouns used only with singular verbs, which cannot be counted and have no plural form, but which, unlike uncountable ones, can be preceded by the indefinite article, al-

[133] The dictionary does not explain what namelike expressions are. *The Earth* and *the sack* in *I got the sack* exemplify nouns representing names and namelike expressions, respectively (LDOCE1: xxx, xxxvi).

though not by *one* (LDOCE1: xxx). Thus, as Akkerman (1989: 68) points out, [GC], [GU], [P] and [S] are the four codes in LDOCE1 which give information about subject-verb concord, not conveyed by means of codes in OALDCE1-3.

As can be seen from Table 15, *sheep*, in contrast to the other countable nouns, is coded [Wn3], which means that the noun does not change in the plural (LDOCE1: xxxii). All codes beginning with [W], which are usually concerned with inflection and pronunciation, stand out from the other codes in the dictionary (Lemmens – Wekker 1986: 24).[134] In particular, codes which start with [Wn] refer to names of plants and animals which do not follow the regular rules of pluralization, and the numbers supplementing such codes, [1], [2] and [3], represent the word forms of these nouns (LDOCE1: xxxii). Unfortunately, a number after [Wn] does not mean the same as in verb codes. In fact, it has no connection whatsoever with the number accompanying any other letters in codes. As a result, the mnemonic value of the LDOCE1 coding system is weakened. For example, as explained in section 1.4.3.1.2, [3] in codes represents, in general, the full infinitive. Yet, as noted above, in [Wn3] it means that the plural form of a noun is the same as singular. Likewise, [1] in [Wn1] suggests that nouns "usually change (add *-s*) in the plural, but sometimes (as with animals when talking about hunting) have a plural that is the same as singular", e.g., *I photographed several lions, I shot several lion* (LDOCE1: xxxi). Number [2] in [Wn2] implies that nouns usually do not change in the plural, "but can do so (as when talking about different kinds of animal, esp. fish, with the same name, or about insects or other small animals which cause disease or damage)", e.g., *He caught five salmon, The Atlantic and Pacific salmons are closely related* (LDOCE1: xxxii).[135] However, as pointed out in section 1.4.3.1.2, the general function assigned to [1] is to indicate one or two noun or pronoun objects or complements, and [2] stands for the bare infinitive. Thus, the numbers perform different functions in noun and verb codes, which suggests that the coding system in LDOCE1 is not in fact so easy to remember as it purports to be.

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[134] The problem has already been hinted at in section 1.4.3.1.2.

[135] In reality, it is hard to draw a clear demarcation line between [Wn1] and [Wn2]. Lemmens and Wekker (1986: 67) observe that even the dictionary itself introduces some confusion in this respect, since the noun *pheasant* is coded [Wn1] in the introduction (LDOCE1: xxxii), but [Wn2] in its entry.

Nonetheless, it is LDOCE1 that is credited with introducing a coding system uniform to all parts of speech whereby the syntax of any grammatical category is shown by appropriate combinations of letters and figures (Jackson 2002: 131). Even though, as explained above, the system fails in the case of [Wn] codes, it does work for others. The code for *evidence* [U5] illustrates the fundamental principle whereby the meaning of the number is the same in all codes. [5] stands here for a *that*-clause, like in [D5] for *remind / tell sb that* and [T5] for *hope / think that*, the verb codes discussed in section 1.4.3.1.2. As Fontenelle (2009: 415) points out, in the late 1970s, this was a major innovation, especially when seen against the background of the verb coding system in OALDCE1, where [P12] (*remind / tell sb that*) and [P11] (*hope / think that*) did not reveal that the patterns feature a common element, let alone allowed drawing any parallels between noun and verb patterns.[136] However, while in the case of verbs, big letter symbols are nearly always combined with numbers, for nouns the combination with a number is optional (Akkerman 1989: 68). This might explain why there are so few codes in Table 15 in which possible clausal postmodification of nouns is presented by means of numbers. However, as can be seen from the table, prepositions are rarely listed in LDOCE1 codes, either. This confirms Lemmens and Wekker's (1986: 69-70) remark that information on prepositions following nouns is not consistent enough in the dictionary under discussion, which also fails to exploit the potential of its coding system to indicate optional clausal complementation of nouns.

OALDCE4-5, like LDOCE1, also use [C] and [U] to mark countable, uncountable and reclassifiable nouns, and they do not supply [C] if a noun, in all its senses, belongs to the countable class (OALDCE4: 1571, OALDCE5: B1). There are indeed no codes in the entries for *bun*, *child*, *sheep*, *toy* in both dictionaries and for *pig* in OALDCE5. In the entries for the countable nouns accompanied by [C] in Table 15, in turn, there are other codes as well: [pl] (*book3, dog1c, idea5*), [sing] (*box4, chair2,4, foot4*) and [U] (*foot5, remark2*) in both dictionaries, and [U] for *pig1b,3b* in OALDCE4.

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[136] Fontenelle (2009: 415-416) illustrates the function performed by number [5] in verb, noun and even adjective codes in LDOCE1 with the help of the following dictionary examples: [D5] *He warned her that he would come*, [T5] *I know that he'll come*, [U5] *Is there proof that he is here?*, [F5] *I'm sure (that) she knows all about it*. This proves that LDOCE1 has "a powerful coding system which describes the grammatical properties of verbs, nouns and adjectives in a very systematic way" (Akkerman 1989: 68).

OALDCE4-5 use [CGp] for countable group nouns. However, *enemy* and *opposition* are coded [Gp], which differs from [CGp] in that the collective nouns thus coded can be used in the singular only. They usually designate place names, people who manage or represent those places or those who have a particular job or share an opinion, e.g., *the Vatican, the White House* or *the press* (OALDCE4: 1571, OALDCE5: B3). The code [CGp] has rightly been found far from self-explanatory (Heuberger 2000: 61). Apparently, [Gp] is no more transparent.

OALDCE4-5 indicate grammatical collocates by listing possible prepositions and clause types which can follow a given noun. Options are separated by the slash (/), e.g., [U ~ (for sth / to do sth / that…)] (*evidence*) or [U ~ (on / about sb / sth)] (*information*). As can be seen, the swung dash represents headwords in such collocation frames. Besides, in contrast to LDOCE1, the dictionaries employ what Siepmann (2005: 32) calls "placeholders", that is the abbreviations [sb] and [sth] for the indefinite pronouns *somebody* and *something*. They stand here for objects of prepositions and infinitives. According to Siepmann (2005: 2), the placeholders are essential, since without them collocations "would be felt incomplete by most speakers".

CALD1-2 codes for the selected nouns are in general very similar to those in the other three dictionaries referred to in Table 15. However, in CALD1-2, countability is not unmarked; even the nouns which are countable in all their senses, e.g., *child* or *toy*, are coded [C]. Collective nouns are represented by means of the descriptive label [group noun], usually followed by [C], [U] or [S] (for *singular noun*). As can be seen from Table 15, [group noun] is not accompanied by any of the aforementioned codes only for *army*.[137] Importantly, [group noun] conveys the same information (the class name) as the codes in LDOCE1 and OALDCE4-5. However, in contrast to LDOCE1 and OALDCE4-5, CALD1-2 list only clausal collocates and infinitives, prepositions being highlighted in bold in examples.[138]

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[137] Akasu et al. (2005: 168) consider the use of [S] highly commendable, since it makes it possible to distinguish between two types of nouns which do not have a plural form: those which can be preceded by the indefinite article [S] and those which cannot [U]. The symbol was not employed in CIDE, and that is why they find it a welcome addition in CALD1.

[138] Such prepositional collocates are not shown in any tables.

In all the dictionaries, codes are given before sense distinctions when they are true for all the senses of a headword, or before the definition of only the sense to which they apply. In the case of reclassifiable nouns, [C] and [U] precede one definition each. Alternatively, they both [C and U] are put together before the definition. As can be seen from the table, the latter positioning of codes for reclassifiable nouns prevails in CALD1-2. Akasu et al. (2005: 168) argue, with reason, that it makes syntactic properties of nouns much less explicit to dictionary users. To illustrate his point, Akasu et al. (2005: 169) cite the entries of *chicken (bird)* and *cedar* from CALD1, i.e.:

46. **chicken** … [C or U] a type of bird kept on a farm for its eggs or its meat, or the meat of this bird which is cooked and eaten,

47. **cedar** … 1 [C] a tall wide evergreen tree … 2 [U] (ALSO cedarwood) the wood of this tree.

Indeed, the combined code in 46 imposes more demands on dictionary users trying to associate countability with a specific meaning than the solution in 47. In the absence of sense numbers followed by codes, dictionary users need to figure out that *chicken* as *a type of bird* is countable, while *chicken* as *the meat of this bird* is uncountable.

The dictionaries differ in the placement of grammatical collocations. In OALDCE4-5 collocation frames are shown before the definition and immediately after the code, if it precedes the definition, e.g., [U ~ (to do sth/that…)] and [U ~ (for sth/to do sth/that…)] (*evidence*, OALDCE4 and OALDCE5, respectively). In LDOCE1, prepositions also follow noun codes, as in [U (*at*)] (*regret*) or [U (*of, for*), U5] (*evidence*). Clausal complements, as already explained, are represented by means of numbers in codes. Interestingly, LDOCE1 also shows that a noun can be preceded by the definite article, e.g., [(*the*) GC] (*aristocracy*), or that it is not used with *the*, [U not+*the*] (*work*). In CALD1-2, in turn, clausal post-modifiers directly precede corresponding examples, e.g., [U [+that]] (*information*).

Finally it is worth noting that the explanation of noun codes in the dictionaries, if present at all, is typically quite short. In OALDCE4 it takes up only a small part of the comprehensive guide to the dictionary (1570-

1572), and in OALDCE5 – three study pages (B1-B3).[139] In CALD1-2, in turn, noun codes and labels are simply listed inside the front cover, with hardly any helpful information, e.g., [C] *countable noun*, [U] *uncountable noun*. It is only in LDOCE1 that the symbols used in noun codes are explained in an elaborate grammar table along with other symbols, ordered alphabetically.

In conclusion, the codes in LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5 and CALD1-2 are similar in at least two respects. First, they use basically [C] and [U] to represent noun countability and reclassification. Second, they adopt a coherent system of codes or labels for collective nouns in which the name of this noun category is indicated along with noun countability or number. The set of codes analyzed in the next section illustrates further advancements in noun coding systems, mainly due to changes in the representation of collective nouns.

1.4.3.2.3. (Un)countable and verb concord representation

Table 16 shows noun codes for the selected sample in LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-8, CIDE and CALD3.

[139] Notwithstanding, Heuberger (2000: 61) praises the explanation of noun codes in OALDCE5 for the exceptionally detailed information on the distinction between [C] and [U].

Table 16. Codes for (un)countable nouns and subject-verb concord representation: LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-7, CIDE and CALD3

	Noun	LDOCE2	LDOCE3	LDOCE4	LDOCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7	OALDCE8	CIDE	CALD3
C	book	–	C	C [+about/on]	C [+about/on]	C	C	C	C	C
C	box	C	C [+of]	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
C	bun	–	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
C	chair	C	C	C [in/on a ch.]	C [in/on a ch.]	C	C	C	C	C
C	child	–	C	C	C	–	–	–	C	C
C	dog	–	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
C	foot	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C
C	idea	C [+*to-v/that*]	C [+for] [+of] [i. that]	C	C [+for] [the i. of doing sth]	[C ~(for sth) |~(of sth) |~(of doing sth)]	[C ~(for sth) |~(of sth) |~(of doing sth)]	C [~(of sth/of doing sth)] [~(for sth)]	C [+*to* infinitive] [+*that* clause]	C [+to infinitive]
C	pig	–	C	C	C	–	–	–	C	C
C	remark	[C (about, on)]	C	C	C	C	C	C	C [+(*that*) clause] [+*that* clause]	C
C	sheep	–	C	C	C	–	–	–	C	C
C	toy	–	C	C	C	–	–	–	C	C

	Noun	**LDOCE2**	**LDOCE3**	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**OALDCE6**	**OALDCE7**	**OALDCE8**	**CIDE**	**CALD3**
U	abuse	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
U	advice	U	U [+on/about] [on sb's a.]	U [+on/about] [on sb's a.]	U [+on/about] [on sb's a.]	[U ~(on sth)]	[U ~(on sth)]	[U ~(on sth)]	U [+*that* clause]	U [+to infinitive]
U	anger	U	U	U [in a.] [+at]	U [+at] [in a.]	U [~(at sb/sth)]	[U ~(at sb/sth)]	U [~(at sb/sth)]	U	U
U	applause	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
U	chaos	U	U [in ch.]	U [in ch.]	U [in ch.]	U	U	U	U	U
U	equipment	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
U	evidence	U [(of, for)] [+*that*] [+*to-v*]	U [+of/for] [e. that]	U [+of/for] [e. that]	U [+of] [+for] [e. that]	[U ~(of / for sth)| ~(that)| ~(to suggest, show, etc.)]	[U ~(of / for sth)| ~(that)| ~(to suggest, show, etc.)]	U [~(of sth)] [~(for sth)] [~(that)] [~(to suggest, show, etc.)]	U [+*to* infinitive] [+*that* clause]	U [+to infinitive] [+that]
U	furniture	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
U	information	[U (about, on)]	U [i. that] [+about/ on]	U [+that] [+about/ on]	U [+that] [+about/ on]	U [~(on/about sb/sth)]	U [~(on/about sb/sth)]	U [~(on/about sb/sth)]	U [+*that* clause]	U [+that]
U	money	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
U	warmth	U	U	U [+of] [for w.]	U [+of] [for w.]	U	U	U	U	U
U	work	U	U [be in w./out of w.]	U	U	U	U	U	U	U

	Noun	**LDOCE2**	**LDOCE3**	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**OALDCE6**	**OALDCE7**	**OALDCE8**	**CIDE**	**CALD3**
Recl.	beauty	1 U, 2 C	a) U, b) C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	beer	C; U	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	U, C	U, C	U, C	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	brick	C; U	C; U	C, U	C, U	C, U	C, U	C, U	~~C~~	~~C~~
Recl.	cake	C; U	C; U	C, U	C, U	C, U	C, U	C, U	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	cheese	U; C	C; U	C, U	C, U	U, C	U, C	U, C	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	coffee	C; U	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C, U	1 U, 2 C, U	U, C	U, C	U, C	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	injustice	1 U, 2 C	C, U	C, U [+of] [+against]	C, U [+of] [+against]	U, C	U, C	U, C	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	kindness	[(to] 1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	…U …C	1 U, 2 C
Recl.	lamb	1 U, 2 C	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	1 C, 2 U	…U …C	C OR U
Recl.	pleasure	1 U; 3 C	C, U	1 U, 2 C	1 U, 2 C	1 [U ~(in sth / in doing sth)| ~(of sth / of doing sth)], 3 C	1 [U ~(in sth / in doing sth)| ~(of sth / of doing sth)], 3 C	1 [U] [~(in sth / in doing sth)] [~(of sth / of doing sth)], 3 C	…U …C	C OR U [+to infinitive]
Recl.	regret	~~U (at)~~	C; U [+at] [with (great/deep) r.]	C usually plural, U [+about] [with r.] [to sb's r.]	C usually plural, U [+about] [with r.] [to sb's r.]	U, C	U, C	U, C	…C …U	C OR U
Recl.	talk	~~1 S (with, about), 3 U~~	1 C [+with/about], 4 U	1 C [+about], 5 U	1 C [+about], 5 U [+of],	1 [C ~(with sb) (about sth)], 6 U	1 [C ~(with sb) (about sth)], 6 U	1 [C ~(with sb) (about sth)], 6 U	…C …U	1 C, 4 U

	Noun	LDOCE2	LDOCE3	LDOCE4	LDOCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7	OALDCE8	CIDE	CALD3
Coll.	aristocracy	[C+sing./ pl. v]	~~C~~	~~C usually singular~~	~~C usually singular~~	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	C [+ sing/ pl v]	[C;+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	army	[C+sing./ pl. v]	[also+plural verb BrE]	[also+plural verb BrE]	[also+plural verb BrE]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	C [+ sing/ pl v]	[+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	audience	[C+sing./ pl. v]	~~C~~	[C also+plural verb] BrE [+of]	[C also+plural verb] BrE [+of]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	C [+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	committee	[C+sing./ pl. v]	C, [also+plural verb BrE]	[C also+plural verb BrE] [+of] [+on] [on a c.]	[C also+plural verb BrE] [+of] [+on] [on a c.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[C;+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	crowd	[C+sing./ pl. v]	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[+ SING/PL VERB] C;
Coll.	enemy	[+sing./ pl. v]	~~C~~	~~C~~	~~C~~	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	~~C USUALLY SINGULAR~~

	Noun	**LDOCE2**	**LDOCE3**	**LDOCE4**	**LDOCE5**	**OALDCE6**	**OALDCE7**	**OALDCE8**	**CIDE**	**CALD3**
Coll.	family	[C+sing./ pl. v]	U, [also+plural verb BrE]	C, [also+plural verb BrE]	C, [also+plural verb BrE]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[+ SING/PL VERB; C OR U]
Coll.	government	[C+sing./ pl. v]	C, [also+plural verb BrE]	[C usually singular also+plural verb BrE]	[C usually singular also+plural verb BrE]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[C;+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	group	[C+sing./ pl.v] [(of)]	C, [+of] [also+plural verb BrE]	C, [also+plural verb BrE] [+of] [in gs.]	C, [also+plural verb BrE] [+of] [in gs.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+sing./ pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	~~C~~
Coll.	herd	[C+sing./ pl. v]	C, [+of] [also+plural verb in BrE]	~~C, [+of]~~	~~C, [+of]~~	–	–	–	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[C;+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	opposition	~~U~~	U, [also+plural verb BrE]	[C, U also+plural verb BrE]	[C, U also+plural verb BrE]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[S,+ SING/PL VERB]
Coll.	staff	[C+sing./ pl. v]	[C also+plural verb BrE]	[C also+plural verb BrE]	[C also plural BrE]	~~[C, usually sing.]~~	~~[C, usually sing., U]~~	~~[C, usually sing., U]~~	[C+ sing/ pl v]	[S,+ SING/PL VERB]

As can be seen, the dictionaries use [C] and [U] to code countable, uncountable and reclassifiable nouns. Countability is unmarked in LDOCE2 and OALDCE6-8. The dictionaries make it clear that [C] appears when a noun in at least one sense allows a non-countable use (LDOCE2: F41, OALDCE6: B4, OALDCE7: R42, OALDCE8: R11). Indeed, when there is no code for a countable noun in Table 16, no other codes are given in the entries for the noun in the dictionaries, either. When [C] is given, in turn, the following codes are also present in the respective noun entries: [*the*+S] (*box5, chair4, foot4, idea6*) and [U] (*foot3, remark2*) in LDOCE2 as well as [pl] (*book5, bun4, dog3*), [sing] (*box6, chair2,4, foot4,7, idea4,5*) and [U] (*box12, remark2*) in OALDCE6-8.[140]

In general, [C] and [U] precede relevant definitions. When they are true for all the senses of a headword, they come before the first sense number. In the case of reclassifiable nouns, [C] and [U] follow one example at a time in CIDE. This distribution, highly commended by Akasu et al. (1996: 44, 49), is symbolized in Table 16 by the ellipsis sign […] before each code, e.g., […U …C]. In the other dictionaries, when the countable and uncountable uses of a reclassifiable noun are represented as different senses, one code, either [C] or [U], is put before the numbered definition, e.g., [1U, 2C]. Otherwise, the two codes are combined ([U,C], [C;U], [C OR U]) and they both precede the same definition.[141]

The table shows that in the dictionaries under consideration, codes for collective nouns explicitly indicate what subject-verb concord in number the nouns allow, rather than just give the name of the noun class, as was the case in the dictionaries discussed in the previous section. LDOCE2, OALDCE6-8, CIDE ([+sing./pl. v.]) and CALD3 ([+SING/PL VERB]) inform dictionary users that collective nouns can be followed by singular and plural verbs. LDOCE3-5 ([also+plural verb BrE]), in turn, signal only the less obvious option and show that the plural verb form is typical of British English. Most probably, it is assumed that advanced dictionary

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[140] The code [the+S] in LDOCE2, where [S] stands for a singular noun, shows that the definite article is obligatory. Nouns which are never used with *the* are accompanied by [~~the~~] (LDOCE2: F41).

[141] As can be seen from the table, the latter solution prevails in CALD3, where most reclassifiable nouns in the sample are coded [C OR U]. Akasu et al. (2005: 168) suspect that the CIDE policy of assigning [C] or [U] to each and every example illustrating the use of reclassifiable nouns was abandoned to save space.

users do not need to be reminded that a verb typically agrees in number with the singular subject noun. Additionally, in all the dictionaries, collective noun countability or number is usually indicated before the information on concord, e.g., [C +sing./pl. v] (*aristocracy* LDOCE2, OALDCE6-8), [C also+plural verb BrE] (*staff*, LDOCE3-5), [sing. +sing./pl. v.] (*enemy, opposition* OALDCE6-8) or [S +SING/PL VERB] (*opposition, staff* CALD3). The only exceptions are the codes for *enemy* [+sing./pl. v] in LDOCE2 as well as *army*: [also+plural verb BrE] in LDOCE3-5 and [+ SING/PL VERB] in CALD3, where there is no such information.

The effect of the variety of English on subject-verb concord with collective nouns is acknowledged in most dictionaries under discussion, though, except for LDOCE3-5, not in codes. CIDE emphasizes on page 1608 that plural subject-verb concord with singular collective nouns is typical of British English. OALDCE6 (B5), OALDCE7 (R43) and OALDCE8 (R12) point out in a similar vein that in American English, such nouns allow only verbs in the singular. LDOCE2 (F41), in turn, explains that the code [+sing./pl. v] applies to nouns "representing a group or an organization, which can be used with a singular or plural verb when the noun is singular. (This use is common in British English but rare in American English)." McCorduck (1993: 110-111) observes that the note in LDOCE2 does not make it absolutely clear which use is infrequent in American English. While the explanation should presumably be taken to mean that the alternation as such is uncommon in American English, rather than either singular or plural concord, it might indeed prove fairly confusing to dictionary users. It is only in CALD3 that no similar information was found.

Overall, however, the attention given in LDOCE2 to subject-verb concord with collective nouns is considered a truly "laudable attempt" (McCorduck 1993: 110). After all, LDOCE2 was the first to spell out the syntactic properties of collective nouns in codes instead of merely supplying the name of the noun category. In general, codes for collective nouns in all the dictionaries discussed above appear to be more straightforward than [GC], [CGp] or even [*group noun*], analyzed in the preceding section. More often than not, the name of the class might be nowhere near as informative and helpful to average dictionary users as clear and immediately comprehensible information on verb number determined by collective nouns. In fact, even learners familiar with the term *group nouns* are spared the cognitive effort of processing the information and recalling the

syntactic properties of the category. Instead, they can instantly see how to use such nouns in practice.

Codes for collective nouns are sometimes split. In LDOCE3-5, [C] or [U] comes before the definition, and the information on verb concord with the noun [also+plural verb BrE] precedes relevant example(s). Similar distribution of codes was identified in CIDE for *aristocracy* and *army*, with that [+sing/pl v] follows examples. Codes for collective nouns can be split in a yet different way. In the case of *opposition* in LDOCE3 and *group* in LDOCE5, [U] and [C], respectively, are given before sense distinctions are drawn, thereby describing the syntactic properties of all of the senses, while [also+plural verb BrE] precedes only the relevant definitions (*opposition2, group1*). Codes for collective nouns are occasionally decomposed also in CALD3. In the case of *audience*, [C] applies to all senses, and [+SING/PL VERB] – to sense one. In the entry for *crowd*, it is the other way around; [+ SING/PL VERB] holds for the headword as such, and [C] – only for the first sense. In Table 16, any split of codes for collective nouns is reflected by placing [C] or [U] outside the square brackets enclosing information on subject-verb concord.

As can be seen from Table 16, most dictionaries list the prepositions which typically occur with a given noun. Only CIDE and CALD3, like CALD1-2, discussed in section 1.4.3.2.2, show them in bold print in example sentences. Besides, all the dictionaries indicate clausal collocates. Interestingly, in the Longman dictionaries, the information is sometimes conveyed with the help of pattern illustrations, e.g., [evidence that] (LDOCE3-5) or [information that] (LDOCE3). In LDOCE2, prepositional collocates precede definitions, while clausal ones – examples. In LDOCE3-5, any collocational information comes before relevant examples. Symbols for clause types are placed in the vicinity of example sentences also in CALD3 and CIDE. OALDCE6-7, in turn, like OALDCE4-5, list all the patterns one by one before the definition, with that the patterns are separated by a short vertical line (|), e.g., [C ~(for sth) |~(of sth) |~(of doing sth)] (*idea*). Even though the frames provide an overview of all the major structures in which a given noun can occur, dictionary users are left to their own devices to find matching examples in the body of the entry. In this respect, OALDCE8 is an improvement on its predecessor inasmuch as frames are interspersed among examples, which is reflected in Table 16 by square brackets enclosing one frame at a time, e.g., [C [~(of sth/of doing sth)] [~(for sth)]] (*idea*). When a single frame is given

for a noun sense in OALDCE8, it either precedes relevant examples, e.g., [U [~(at sb/sth)]] (*anger*), which is hardly ever the case in the previous edition, or is given after the code and before the definition, e.g., [U ~(on sth)] (*advice*).

Finally, it should also be noted that the more recent the dictionary edition is, the fewer comments on noun codes it usually offers. In LDOCE2, such information occupies one page (F41) in the front matter, where helpful examples of correct and incorrect noun usage are also given.[142] In LDOCE3, the approach to coding noun syntax is explained in point 4.5, which takes up one fourth of page xv. In LDOCE4-5, in turn, there is no separate section devoted to noun codes any longer. They are simply listed among other codes on page ii, where they are accompanied by short definitions and examples. In CIDE, in turn, apart from the categorization of nouns and general information on noun syntax on page xiii, [C] and [U] are explained in the language portrait titled "The definite and indefinite articles" (68-69). CIDE noun codes are also listed inside the front cover. In CALD3, noun codes are only on the list inside its front cover, with hardly any helpful explanation; [C] is expanded into *countable noun* and [U] into *uncountable noun*. By contrast, in OALDCE6 (B4-B5), OALDCE7 (R42-R43) and OALDCE8 (R11-R12), noun codes are adequately explained and concise information on the basic noun classes is supplied along with many illustrative sentences.

In conclusion, all the dictionaries discussed above differ from those analyzed so far in the way they code information on collective nouns. Instead of introducing the class name in codes, they explicitly indicate the possibility of varied subject-verb concord in number, which seems to be a more straightforward solution. By contrast, the coding of countable, uncountable and reclassifiable nouns strongly resembles the previously presented approach. Yet, [C] and [U] and their combinations have not become universal standards for dealing with these noun categories, as the next sections show.

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[142] McCorduck (1993: 110) points out that LDOCE2 does not explain that uncountable nouns take singular verbs, presumably because dictionary users are "expected to understand the basic rule of English grammar that only plural, i.e., countable, nouns take plural verbs". As he observes, many teachers are well aware that this could be a risky assumption. Remarkably enough, information that uncountable nouns require singular verbs is supplied only in OALDCE4-8, LDOCE1 and COBUILD2-5.

1.4.3.2.4. (Un)countable, reclassifiable and verb concord representation

The codes which COBUILD1 and COBUILD6 assign to the selected nouns are collated in Table 17.

Table 17. Codes for (un)countable nouns, reclassifiable nouns and subject-verb concord representation: COBUILD1 and COBUILD6

	Noun	**COBUILD1**	**COBUILD6**
C	book	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	box	N COUNT: IF+PREP THEN *of*	N-COUNT
C	bun	N COUNT	N-COUNT: oft n N
C	chair	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	child	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	dog	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	foot	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	idea	N COUNT	N-COUNT: oft adj N, N to-inf [+of]
C	pig	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	remark	N COUNT	N-COUNT [+*about*]
C	sheep	N COUNT	N-COUNT
C	toy	N COUNT	N-COUNT
U	abuse	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	advice	N UNCOUNT: USU+SUPP	N-UNCOUNT [+*about*], [+*on*], [+*of*]
U	anger	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT [+*at*]
U	applause	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	chaos	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	equipment	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	evidence	N UNCOUNT: USU+SUPP	N-UNCOUNT N that, N to-inf, [+ *of/for*]
U	furniture	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	information	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT [+*about*] [+*on*]
U	money	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	warmth	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT [+*of*]
U	work	N UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT oft *in/out of* N
Recl.	beauty	1. N UNCOUNT, 2. N COUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT
Recl.	beer	N MASS	N-VAR
Recl.	brick	1. N COUNT, 2. N UNCOUNT	N-VAR
Recl.	cake	N COUNT, ► N UNCOUNT	N-VAR
Recl.	cheese	N MASS	N-VAR
Recl.	coffee	N MASS	N-VAR

	Noun	**COBUILD1**	**COBUILD6**
Recl.	injustice	N UNCOUNT, ► N COUNT	N-VAR
Recl.	kindness	N COUNT; N UNCOUNT	~~N UNCOUNT~~
Recl.	lamb	1. N COUNT, 2. N UNCOUNT	N-COUNT, ● N-UNCOUNT
Recl.	pleasure	1. N COUNT, 2. N UNCOUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT [+*in*], [Also+*from*], 3. N-COUNT [+*of*]
Recl.	regret	N UNCOUNT, OR N COUNT	N-VAR [+about]
Recl.	talk	3. ►N UNCOUNT; 4. ►N COUNT	1. ● N-UNCOUNT; 2. ● N-COUNT [+about]
Coll.	aristocracy	N COUNT: IF SING, USU *the*+N, VB CAN BE SING OR PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb
Coll.	army	N COUNT: IF SING, USU *the*+N, VB CAN BE SING OR PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb
Coll.	audience	~~N COUNT~~	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb [+*of*]
Coll.	committee	N COUNT: VB CAN BE SING OR PL, OR *by*+N	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb [+*of*]
Coll.	crowd	~~N COUNT~~	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb [+*of*]
Coll.	enemy	~~N COUNT, OR N SING: *the*+N~~	N-SING with sing or pl verb, N n
Coll.	family	N COUNT: IF SING, VB CAN BE SING OR PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb [+*of*]
Coll.	government	N COUNT: VB CAN BE SING OR PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb
Coll.	group	N COUNT: ALSO N+*of*+N IN PL, IF SING VB CAN BE SING OR PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb [+*of*]
Coll.	herd	~~N PART+N IN PLURAL~~	~~N COUNT: oft n N, [+of]~~
Coll.	opposition	~~N SING: *the*+N~~	N-SING with sing or pl verb [+*for*]
Coll.	staff	N COUNT: USU SING+SUPP, IF SING USU WITH VB IN PL	N-COUNT with sing or pl verb

In COBUILD1, all noun codes, like any other syntactic codes in the dictionary, are located in the extra column. In COBUILD6, they are placed in the entry block before the definition, where clausal collocates are also indicated. Information on prepositional collocates precedes relevant examples, e.g., [N-UNCOUNT, N that, N to-inf, [+ of/for]] (*evidence*). Typical prepositional collocates are sometimes integrated into noun codes as well, e.g., [N-UNCOUNT oft in/out of N] (*work*).

Countable nouns, even those countable in all their senses, are coded in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6. Yet, the dictionaries, unlike those discussed

so far, do not employ [C] and [U], but introduce more space-consuming abbreviations: [N-COUNT] and [N-UNCOUNT], which are said to add to the clarity of the noun coding system (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 51). While it might indeed be easier for dictionary users to associate them with *countable* and *uncountable*, respectively, in essence, they convey the same information as [C] and [U].

By establishing the class of mass nouns [N MASS], COBUILD1 attempts to deal with reclassifiable nouns. The boxed entry devoted to the code makes it clear that "[a]n N MASS normally behaves like an uncount noun… However, unlike an uncount noun, it can also treat the things it refers to as countable ... Therefore, when the noun refers to a particular type, brand or measure of something, it can be used in the plural. For example, *three teas* means *three cups of tea* or *three kinds of tea*" (COBUILD1: 972).[143] The major noun classifications had to be diversified in the light of corpus analysis, since "[s]ome apparently clear-cut distinctions began to crumble as the weight of evidence came into play" (Sinclair 1987b: 114). The introduction of a special code for reclassifiable nouns was motivated by the conviction that referring to them "as count/uncount nouns … does not capture the fact that they are a large subclass of nouns with their own patterns of behaviour, deserving of being described in their own right rather than as a sort of a hybrid" (Hunston – Francis 2000: 181-182). However, as can be seen from Table 17, labeling some reclassifiable nouns as both countable and uncountable was not abandoned in COBUILD1. [N UNCOUNT / N COUNT] means that the noun can be used both uncountably and countably. If countable uses are more frequent, the notation [N COUNT / N UNCOUNT] is employed (COBUILD1: 987). In other words, any noun coded [N COUNT / N UNCOUNT] displays the normal features of a countable noun, and additionally but secondarily – the properties of an uncountable noun (Sinclair 1987b: 112).

When countable and uncountable uses represent different senses, [N COUNT] and [N UNCOUNT] are assigned to one sense each, e.g., [1.N

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[143] The boxing method of explaining codes in COBUILD1 was discussed in section 1.4.3.1.3.1. The following boxed entries deal with noun codes: NAME, N BEFORE N, N COUNT, N PART, N PLURAL, N PROPER, N SING, N UNCOUNT, N UNCOUNT / N COUNT, TITLE. In COBUILD6, in turn, information on symbols and abbreviations used in noun codes is part of the "Explanation of grammatical terms" in the front matter (xvi-xxiii).

COUNT, 2.N UNCOUNT] (COBUILD1: *beauty, brick, lamb, pleasure*). Interestingly, both codes are used also when the symbol [►] appears in the entry block as well as in the extra column, e.g.,

48.	**cake** … 1 A **cake** is 1.1. a sweet food made by baking a mixture of flour, eggs, sugar, fat, etc in an oven … ► used as an uncount noun …	N COUNT ►N UNCOUNT
49.	**injustice** … 1 **Injustice** is unfairness and lack of justice in a situation … ► used to refer to an example of this …	N UNCOUNT ►N COUNT

Moon (1987: 88-89) explains that lexicographers working on COBUILD1 used [►] to introduce a change in syntax, mainly in word class, where there is hardly any semantic change and where separate treatment of the other word class would mean repeating the original definition almost verbatim. Besides, the symbol allowed the lexicographers to signal very minor changes in meaning that they did not wish to raise to the status of separate sense, thereby highlighting relatedness of meaning. When the symbol does not appear, [N MASS] is typically used.[144]

It appears that labeling reclassifiable nouns as mass nouns might be misleading. The term *mass noun* is used in the context of the count/mass distinction, where it functions as a synonym of *uncountable noun*.[145] [N MASS] does not imply the variability inherent in the syntactic behavior of reclassifiable nouns. Quite the reverse, it immediately suggests some undifferentiated substance, and dictionary users are unlikely to infer that nouns thus coded can designate a particular type, brand or measure of that substance.

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[144]*Regret*, coded [N UNCOUNT, OR N COUNT] in the absence of [►] is an exception in this respect. In the case of *kindness*, the entry for the noun gives the code [N COUNT], but the user is cross-referenced to the entry for the adjective *kind*. There, the noun in question is nested at the end of sense 9 and coded [N UNCOUNT]. Hence [N COUNT; N UNCOUNT] in Table 17.

[145] The issue resurfaces in section 1.4.3.2.5. Interestingly enough, in McCawley's (1975: 320) words, "a noun is a mass noun if and only if its meaning does not provide an individuation for the things that it describes".

In COBUILD6, [N-VAR] stands for variable nouns. A variable noun "combines the behaviour of both count and uncount nouns in the same sense … the singular form occurs freely both with and without determiners. Variable nouns also have a plural form … some variable nouns when used like uncount nouns refer to abstract things … and when used like count nouns refer to individual examples or instances of that thing … Others refer to objects which can be mentioned either individually or generally" (COBUILD6: xix). While [N-VAR] does imply some variability in noun syntax, and in this respect is more felicitous than [N MASS], it is not perfectly clear from the code alone what sort of variability is meant. Yet, unlike [N MASS], it does not evoke any immediate associations with substances. As pointed out above, it applies to abstract notions and their instantiations on the one hand, and objects, apparently including substances, seen generally and individually – on the other. This must be the reason why [N-VAR], in contrast to [N MASS] in COBUILD1, refers not only to *beer, cheese* and *coffee*.

Unfortunately, COBUILD6 does not account for the combined use of [N-COUNT] and [N-UNCOUNT] with reclassifiable nouns. Obviously, as can be seen from the table, both codes are present when different noun senses are distinguished (*beauty, pleasure*). In the entry for *lamb*, in turn, [N-UNCOUNT] is nested at the end of the first subentry and follows the dot sign [●] together with a definition and one example:

50. **lamb** … 1. N-COUNT A **lamb** is a young sheep ● N-UNCOUNT **Lamb** is the flesh of a lamb eaten as food. *Laura was basting the leg of lamb*.

Although the dictionary offers no information as to the role of the black dot symbol [●], it appears to perform the same function as [►] in COBUILD1.

It should also be noted that both in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6, information on the syntax of the noun *talk* is given after the respective typographic signs ([►] and [●]) in the relevant subentries of the verb *talk*. This type of entry organization reflects departure from the principle of allocating homographs to different entries, which, in turn, results from the assumption that the fundamental level of analysis is that of the word-form, not of the lemma or lexeme (Cowie 1999a: 147). It was believed that treating together noun and verb uses, provided that they were semantically linked, would give dictionary users a better overview of meaning

connections. As Moon (1987: 88) points out, many learners make semantic links across word class boundaries and, for example, are likely to connect the noun *tread* (footstep) with the verb *tread* (to step). Therefore, there are entries where word class is ignored and "the ► convention" is used to reflect the "feeling that word-class distinctions are not as important as semantic similarity" (Moon 1987: 90). Unfortunately, this aspect of dictionary organization seriously hinders information retrieval. Besides, in practice, dealing with noun senses in sub-categories adjacent to associated verbs proved problematic in the case of heavily polysemous words as well as entries which were to cover homographs with different pronunciations or inflections. Such entries were often found excessively long and confusing (Moon 2009: 447).[146]

Table 17 shows that the strategy of coding syntactic properties of collective nouns in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6 is essentially the same. The indication of noun countability or number is followed by explicit information that the verb can be singular or plural, as in the following codes for *government*: [N COUNT: VB CAN BE SING OR PL] (COBUILD1) and [N-COUNT with sing or pl verb] (COBUILD6), or *enemy* and *opposition* [N-SING with sing or pl verb] (COBUILD6). The dictionaries do not supply any information on the role of the variety of English in this respect. Yet, such codes are space-consuming and seem needlessly wordy. In COBUILD1 they often take up a few lines in the extra column, which might make it difficult for dictionary users to retrieve the necessary information. For example, the code [N COUNT: ALSO N+of+N IN PL, IF SING VB CAN BE SING OR PL] (*group*) extends over as many as four lines in the extra column.

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[146] Cowie (1999a: 147) as well as Hausmann and Gorbahn (1989: 51) rightly note that when nominal and verbal senses are clustered together in one entry, two sets of inflected forms are conflated, which may cause further problems with information retrieval. Besides, such microstructures not only make orientation difficult, but also fail to adequately reflect meaning connections and, consequently, do not encourage vocabulary development. No wonder, then, that the entries in COBUILD1 were considered unwieldy and the layout – unprofessional (Hausmann – Gorbahn 1989: 55-56). However, the conflation of verbs and nouns into a single entry carries an important message that a word does not *have* a grammatical class, but is only *employed* in a grammatical class (Hoey – O'Donnell 2008: 294), or, as Hunston (2004: 104) puts it, "a word is not inherently a member of any class". This, in turn, results from rejecting the traditional division between grammar and lexicon, mentioned in section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

As can be seen from Table 17, COBUILD1 employs the code [SUPP], e.g., [N UNCOUNT: USU+SUPP] (*advice, evidence*) or [N COUNT: USU SING+SUPP, IF SING USU WITH VB IN PL] (*staff*). [SUPP] means that the noun is not typically used on its own, but needs a supporting word, phrase or clause to give further information on the noun. Such extra information may either precede or follow the noun. If the former is the case, the supporting element is usually an attributive adjective or a noun used as a modifier. If the latter – it is a relative clause or a prepositional group introduced by *of* (COBUILD1: 1469). The obvious problem with [SUPP] is that it is not specific enough as it does not show exactly what kind of pre-modification or complementation is needed; the dictionary user must infer it from examples (McCorduck 1993: 94). This proves Moon's (2007: 168) remark that COBUILD1 did not always succeed in indicating collocations sufficiently clearly for the end-user.[147] It is instructive to note that in COBUILD6, typical prepositional and/or clausal complements are simply listed, e.g., [N-UNCOUNT [+about], [+on], [+of]] (*advice*) or [N-UNCOUNT, N that, N to-inf, [+ of/for]] (*evidence*), already mentioned above.

Besides, COBUILD6 signals frequent pre-modification by adjectives [oft adj N] (*idea*) and nouns [oft n N] (*bun*). In the latter case, [N] represents the headword, while [n] – another noun which pre-modifies the headword (COBUILD6: xx).[148] Such a distinction is not drawn in COBUILD1, where only actual words are given in lower case. The typographic conventions followed in COBUILD1 might generate some confusion. For example, in the aforementioned code for *group*, it might not be clear from [N+*of*+N IN PL] which [N] stands for the headword. It should also be mentioned that COBUILD1 shows by means of [*the*+N] that a noun requires the definite article, e.g., [N COUNT: IF SING, USU *the*+N, VB CAN BE SING OR PL] for *aristocracy* and *army*. COBUILD6, in turn, does not provide similar information in codes, but *the* and the headword are highlighted in bold in the definition.[149]

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[147] The way in which COBUILD1 introduces prepositional complementation, i.e., [IF+PREP THEN *of*] (*box*), was commented on in section 1.4.3.1.3.1.

[148] The codes adduced above illustrate the infrequent cases where lexical collocations are incorporated into noun codes in learners' dictionaries.

[149] Likewise, COBUILD1 has the code [N PROPER: *the*+N] for proper nouns used with the definite article, e.g., *the BBC*. COBUILD6 uses [N PROPER] only, but shows the definite article in bold in the definition.

A look at Table 17 suggests that, in general, COBUILD6 gives more noun patterns and adequate noun codes than COBUILD1.[150] These differences probably result from changes in the corpora on which the dictionaries rest. As Moon (2009: 441) explains, the first edition of COBUILD was based on what today looks like a modest database: the Birmingham Collection of English Text (BCET), which totaled 7.3 million words by 1982, later supplemented by a Reserve Corpus, which included another 13 million words.[151] Nonetheless, considering the technical limitations of that time, the size of the database for the dictionary was an ambitious aim anyway. COBUILD6, the 21st birthday edition, boasts reliance on the Collins Bank of English of 645 million words (COBUILD6: xi). Naturally, the hardware and software used to process this sample of the English language have also substantially improved. Thus, the latest edition can more effectively accomplish the principal aim of COBUILD lexicographers, which is to help learners with *real* English (Carter 1989b: 34, COBUILD6: xi).

In conclusion, the noun coding systems in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6 have a lot in common. They offer abbreviations rather than one-letter codes for countable and uncountable nouns, and feature special codes for reclassifiable nouns. Besides, they both explicitly spell out the options of verb concord in number with collective nouns. However, the presentation of noun patterns in COBUILD6 is often more straightforward than in COBUILD1, and the distribution of noun codes – obviously different. The next section focuses on noun codes in the other editions of COBUILD, which stand out from the two just discussed mainly in their treatment of collective nouns, and, to a lesser extent – reclassifiable ones.

1.4.3.2.5. (Un)countable, reclassifiable and collective

Details on noun codes in COBUILD2-5 are presented in Table 18. In the dictionaries, noun codes, like any others syntactic codes, are located in the extra column, and symbols which make them up are explained in the front matter.[152]

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[150] McCorduck (1993: 94) goes so far as to say that the coverage of noun complementation in COBUILD1 is insufficient. See also the quantitative analysis in section 1.4.2.2.

[151] The extension made it possible to reach the target of 20 million words, an acceptable size for a corpus to analyze lexis, collocation and meaning, as suggested by Halliday in 1966 (Moon 2009: 440-441). See also section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

[152] Comments on the explanatory sections in COBUILD2-5 are offered in section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

Table 18. Codes for (un)countable, reclassifiable and collective nouns: COBUILD2-5

	Noun	**COBUILD2**	**COBUILD3**	**COBUILD4**	**COBUILD5**
C	book	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	box	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	bun	N-COUNT: oft n N	N-COUNT: oft n N	N-COUNT: oft n N	N-COUNT: oft n N
C	chair	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	child	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	dog	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	foot	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	idea	N-COUNT: oft adj N, N to-inf, N *of* n/-ing	N-COUNT: oft adj N, N to-inf, N *of* n/-ing	N-COUNT: oft adj N, N to-inf, N *of* n/-ing	N-COUNT: oft adj N, N to-inf, N *of* n/-ing
C	pig	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	remark	N-COUNT: with supp	N-COUNT: with supp	N-COUNT: with supp	N-COUNT: with supp
C	sheep	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
C	toy	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT	N-COUNT
U	abuse	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	advice	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *on/about* n/wh/-ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *on/about* n/wh/-ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *on/about* n/wh/-ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *on/about* n/wh/-ing
U	anger	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *at* n/ -ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *at* n/ -ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *at* n/ -ing	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *at* n/ -ing
U	applause	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	chaos	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT

	Noun	**COBUILD2**	**COBUILD3**	**COBUILD4**	**COBUILD5**
U	equipment	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	evidence	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *of/for* n, N that, N to-inf	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *of/for* n, N that, N to-inf	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *of/for* n, N that, N to-inf	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *of/for* n, N that, N to-inf
U	furniture	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	information	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *about/on* n	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *about/on* n	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *about/on* n	N-UNCOUNT: oft N *about/on* n
U	money	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	warmth	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT	N-UNCOUNT
U	work	N-UNCOUNT: oft *in/out of* N	N-UNCOUNT: oft *in/out of* N	N-UNCOUNT: oft *in/out of* N	N-UNCOUNT: oft *in/out of* N
Recl.	beauty	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT
Recl.	beer	N-MASS	N-MASS	N-MASS	N MASS
Recl.	brick	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR
Recl.	cake	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR
Recl.	cheese	N-MASS	N-MASS	N-MASS	N-MASS
Recl.	coffee	N-UNCOUNT, ► N-COUNT	N-UNCOUNT, ♦ N-COUNT	N-UNCOUNT, ♦ N-COUNT	N-UNCOUNT, ♦ N-COUNT
Recl.	injustice	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR
Recl.	kindness	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT	1. N-UNCOUNT, 2. N-COUNT	~~N-UNCOUNT~~	~~N-UNCOUNT~~
Recl.	lamb	N-COUNT, ►N-UNCOUNT	N-COUNT, ♦ N-UNCOUNT	N-COUNT, ♦ N-UNCOUNT	N-COUNT, ♦ N-UNCOUNT

	Noun	**COBUILD2**	**COBUILD3**	**COBUILD4**	**COBUILD5**
Recl.	pleasure	1. N-UNCOUNT: oft N *from/in* n/-ing, 3. N-COUNT: oft N *of* n/ -ing	1. N-UNCOUNT: oft N *from/in* n/-ing, 3. N-COUNT oft N *of* n/ -ing	1. N-UNCOUNT: oft N *from/in* n/-ing, 3. N-COUNT oft N *of* n/ -ing	1. N-UNCOUNT: oft N *from/in* n/-ing, 3. N-COUNT oft N *of* n/ -ing
Recl.	regret	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR	N-VAR
Recl.	talk	1. ►N-UNCOUNT, 2. ►N-COUNT	1. ♦ N-UNCOUNT, 2. ♦ N-COUNT	1. ♦ N-UNCOUNT, 2. ♦ N-COUNT	1. ♦ N-UNCOUNT, 2. ♦ N-COUNT
Coll.	aristocracy	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL
Coll.	army	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL
Coll.	audience	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL
Coll.	committee	N-COUNT-COLL: usu with supp	N-COUNT-COLL: usu with supp	N-COUNT-COLL: usu with supp	N-COUNT-COLL: usu with supp
Coll.	crowd	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n
Coll.	enemy	N-SING-COLL: *the* N, N n	N-SING-COLL: *the* N, N n	N-SING-COLL: *the* N, N n	N-SING-COLL: *the* N, N n
Coll.	family	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL
Coll.	government	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL
Coll.	group	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n	N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n
Coll.	herd	~~N-COUNT: oft n N, N *of* n~~	~~N-COUNT: oft n N, N *of* n~~	~~N-COUNT: oft n N, N *of* n~~	~~N-COUNT: oft n N, N of n~~
Coll.	opposition	N-SING-COLL	N-SING-COLL	N-SING-COLL	N-SING-COLL
Coll.	staff	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL	N-COUNT-COLL

As can be seen, in COBUILD2-5, like in the editions discussed in the previous section, [N-COUNT] and [N-UNCOUNT] are used. Additionally, some codes incorporate symbolic representations of frequent noun collocates. In codes for noun patterns, [N] stands for the headword and other pattern components are indicated by symbols for clause or phrase types, e.g., [to-inf], [that], [wh-], [n]. Specific prepositions and articles are shown in italics. Table 18 clearly shows how these elements combine together, e.g., [N-UNCOUNT: oft N *on/about* n/wh/-ing] (*advice*) or [N-UNCOUNT: oft N *of/for* n, N that, N to-inf] (*evidence*). Fortunately, typography brings out the distinction between the headword and other pattern constituents. Such noun codes, where simple symbols separated by slashes plainly show grammatical collocations, have been found very successful (Cowie 2004: 43). Nonetheless, as already pointed out, they might pose some problems due to their length.

Table 18 reveals that COBUILD2-5 also use much less straightforward codes, i.e., [N-COUNT: with supp] (*remark*). The symbol [supp], like [SUPP] in COBUILD1, designates supplementary information on nouns conveyed by determiners, possessives, adjectives, noun modifiers, prepositional phrases or clauses (COBUILD2: xxxiii).[153] Yet, as mentioned above, dictionary users cannot glean from the abbreviation alone the wide range of linguistic structures which can precede and follow a noun. Interestingly, the role of [with] before [supp] is to indicate that the position of supplementary information is not fixed (COBUILD2: xxx).

In COBUILD2-5, like in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6, reclassification is manifested by [N-COUNT] and [N-UNCOUNT] when the two noun uses are represented as different senses (*beauty, kindness, pleasure*). Besides, both codes are placed in the extra column if either use is introduced by a black triangle [►] (COBUILD2) or diamond [♦] (COBUILD3-5), e.g.,

51.	**coffee** … 1. Coffee is a hot drink made with water and ground or powdered coffee beans. *Would you like some coffee?* ► A coffee is a cup of coffee. *I made a coffee.*	N UNCOUNT N COUNT

[153] The code is defined in the same way in COBUILD3-5. In what follows, only COBUILD2 is referred to in such cases.

Unlike in COBUILD1, the typographic signs are not repeated in the extra column.[154]

Each dictionary under discussion employs [N-VAR] and [N-MASS]. The presence of these two noun codes in a single dictionary is quite surprising, as they both describe the syntactic properties of nouns which typically combine the behavior of countable and uncountable nouns in the same sense. Yet, nouns coded [N-VAR] denote abstract things and their individual instantiations (*injustice* vs. *an injustice*) as well as objects which can be mentioned either generally or individually (*potato* vs. *a potato*). Nouns coded [N-MASS], by contrast, designate substances in general or their brands or types (*detergent* vs. *a detergent*) (COBUILD2: xxvi-xxvii). Thus, the codes introduce a word-class categorization which depends on semantic rater than syntactic distinctions. In other words, they do not indicate different patterns. Hunston and Francis (2000: 182) admit that the nouns given the code [N-MASS] could have been coded [N-VAR] with no consequences for the conveyed information on syntax. Nonetheless, the decision to use both codes in one dictionary was influenced by the distinction between instances (in the case of [N-VAR]) and brands or types (in the case of [N-MASS]). On top of that, [N-MASS] represents a traditionally recognized sub-class of nouns, and, as such, it was found worth maintaining. Most importantly, however, there is a difference between the patterns in frequency. In the case of [N-VAR] nouns, the instance (or countable) use is as frequent as the non-instance (or uncountable) occurrence. Nouns given the code [N-MASS], by contrast, much less often function as names of brands or types than as names of substances. In other words, the uncountable use of such nouns is more common than the countable one (Hunston – Francis 2000: 182).[155]

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[154] See [N-UNCOUNT, ► N-COUNT] (COBUILD2) and [N-UNCOUNT, ♦ N-COUNT] (COBUILD3-5) for *coffee* and *lamb* in Table 18 and compare examples 48 and 49 in section 1.4.3.2.4. COBUILD2 (xv) makes it clear that the triangle indicates changes in word class without any significant change in meaning. It can also introduce a closely connected meaning. COBUILD3 (xvi) assigns only the former function to the diamond. The other two editions do not explain its purpose at all. Like in COBUILD1 and COBUILD6, the senses in which the noun *talk* can be used countably and uncountably are nested in relevant verb subentries.

[155] Hunston and Francis (2000: 192) acknowledge that there are nouns whose cluster of syntactic properties does not neatly fit into [N-VAR] or [N-MASS]. On the one hand, some nouns behave like uncountable ones, but can also be used in the plural, although

Reclassifiable nouns coded [N-VAR] and [N-MASS] are seen as examples of "word classes being created as a convenient way to account for the variability in their behaviour" (Hunston 2004: 104). Notwithstanding the justification in the literature on the topic, summarized above, recourse to two different codes to represent noun reclassification in one dictionary does not seem to be beneficial to dictionary users. It is questionable whether employing syntactic codes to reflect the semantic distinction between the instance use and the brand or type use is a good move, considering the fact that it does not translate into any syntactic difference. Regrettably, the dictionaries do not inform the learner whether countable or uncountable uses are more typical of variable and mass nouns. It seems that it is the information that might be of interest to those who wonder how a given noun is most often used. Finally, as mentioned in the previous section, the codes themselves are not informative enough; [N-MASS] does not even subtly imply any syntactic variability, while [N-VAR], which does suggest some kind of alternation, fails to betray its type.

Heuberger (2000: 64) notes that COBUILD2 identifies as many as 16 different noun classes, which makes the dictionary a good choice for those who need exceptionally detailed specifications. Unfortunately, many advanced dictionary users are unlikely to benefit from this wealth of information.[156] In fact, lexicographers are criticized for coining descriptive terms, introducing special word classes and devising their own notations (Heuberger 2000: 62, Moulin 1999: 182). Undoubtedly, the resulting syntactic description is more precise. Yet, the coding system resembles then "a high-end stereo with innumerable technical functions which will only disclose themselves to users who study the instructions

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not in the singular with the indefinite article. They are coded [N-UNCOUNT: also N in pl] (e.g., *discontent, oppression*). On the other hand, there are uncountable nouns which can be used as countable ones in the singular with the indefinite article, but have no plural form. These are coded [N-UNCOUNT: also *a* N] (e.g., *gloom, growth*) (Hunston – Francis 2000: 182-183). Interestingly, as many as 13 semantic subcategories of mass nouns are distinguished and described by Francis, Hunston and Manning (1998: 8-12). By contrast, the class of variable nouns, which embraces a much wider semantic diversity, is not divided into any semantic sub-categories.

[156] Bogaards (1996: 305) holds that the overall number of word classes distinguished in COBUILD2 amounts to 75, which is legitimately considered too large a number for a pedagogical dictionary (Walter 1996: 358).

carefully … some of these special functions are perhaps superfluous and confusing rather than helpful" (Heuberger 2000: 62).

Finally, as shown in Table 18, codes for collective nouns in COBUILD2-5 consist of two basic parts. The first one provides information on noun countability [N-COUNT] or number [N-SING], and the second one [-COLL] is an abbreviation for *collective*. Where appropriate, additional information on the pattern in which a given collective noun functions immediately follows, e.g., [N-COUNT-COLL: oft N *of* n] (*group*), [N-SING-COLL: *the* N, N n] (*enemy*).[157] However, like [GC] in LDOCE1, [CGp] in OALDCE4-5 and [group noun] in CALD1-2, such codes do not plainly show subject-verb concord in number with collective nouns. While they do give the name of the noun class, they do not make it immediately obvious that both singular and plural verbs can be used with collective nouns in the singular. In this respect, codes for collective nouns in COBUILD2-5 are much less straightforward than those in COBUILD1 [N COUNT: VB CAN BE SING OR PL] and COBUILD6 [N-COUNT with sing or pl verb], which present the information.

In conclusion, COBUILD2-5 use the same codes for countable and uncountable nouns as COBUILD1 and COBUILD6, but, in contrast to the first and the last editions, each of them features two special codes for reclassifiable nouns. It is not only the codes for mass and variable nouns, distinguished on semantic rather than syntactic grounds, that might be confusing. The possibility of singular and plural verb concord with collective nouns is not immediately obvious from codes, either, which abbreviate the name of the noun category, but do not spell out its distinctive syntactic properties. Thus, codes for collective nouns in COBUILD2-5 resemble those in LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5 and CALD1-2.

1.4.3.2.6. Conclusions

With the exception of GEW, all the pedagogical dictionaries discussed above have codes for countable and uncountable nouns. COBUILD1-6 replace the conventionally used [C] and [U] with [N-COUNT] and [N-UNCOUNT]. Besides, in OALDCE1-8 and LDOCE1-2, countability is

[157] The code for *enemy* shows that, like COBUILD1, the dictionaries explicitly indicate the need for the definite article.

the unmarked case; in the absence of any codes in the entry, it should simply be taken for granted.

In the majority of the dictionaries considered (OALDCE1-8, LDOCE1-5, MEDAL1-2, CIDE and CALD1-3), reclassification is treated as countability alternation. It is only COBUILD1-6 that feature the special codes [N MASS] and/or [N-VAR] for reclassifiable nouns. In COBUILD2-5, the presence of both codes, although syntactically unmotivated, reflects the semantic distinction between mass nouns, which designate substances and their brands or types, and variable nouns, which name objects and abstractions as well as their instantiations.

Codes for collective nouns further differentiate noun coding systems. As shown above, in some dictionaries the name of this noun class is coded (LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5, COBUILD2-5), or at least indicated by means of labels (CALD1-2), while in others the possibility of singular and plural verb concord with collective nouns is explicitly shown in codes (LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-8, CIDE, CALD3, COBUILD1, COBUILD6). It should also be remembered that codes for collective nouns usually supply information on noun countability or number. However, there are also dictionaries where the syntax of collective nouns is not coded at all (GEW, OALDCE1-3, MEDAL1-2).

The differences notwithstanding, it is worth looking for some connections between codes for the investigated noun categories. Codes for countable and uncountable nouns, which feature in all dictionaries but GEW and convey essentially the same information on noun syntax regardless of their form, are not considered below.[158] Suggested links between codes for reclassifiable and collective nouns are represented symbolically in Table 19. The plus sign (+) shows what feature is coded in a given dictionary. The symbol ± means that the label [group noun] is used rather than a code. GEW, OALDCE1-3 and MEDAL1-2 are excluded as they do not code the syntax of collective nouns.

[158] Nonetheless, it might be interesting to verify empirically whether [C] / [U] or [N-COUNT] / [N-UNCOUNT] are more attractive to dictionary users.

Table 19. Interdependencies between codes for reclassifiable and collective nouns

Nouns		LDOCE1	OALDCE4	OALDCE5	CALD1	CALD2	LDOCE2	LDOCE3	LDOCE4	LDOCE5	OALDCE6	OALDCE7	OALDCE8	CIDE	CALD3	COBUILD1	COBUILD6	COBUILD2	COBUILD3	COBUILD4	COBUILD5
Feature																					
Reclassifiable	C/U (only)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
	Special classes															+	+	+	+	+	+
Collective	Concord						+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+				
	Name	+	+	+	±	±												+	+	+	+
							mainstream											alternative			

Two basic trends in the investigated noun coding systems can be distinguished. When reclassifiable nouns are rendered as countable-uncountable hybrids (*C/U (only)* in Table 19), codes for collective nouns usually indicate the possibility of singular and plural *concord* (LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-8, CIDE, CALD3). In view of the fact that such a conjunction of codes prevails, it is possible to call them mainstream ones. By contrast, naming reclassifiable nouns as variable or mass nouns in codes (*special classes*) coincides with coding the name of *collective* nouns as well. This combination of codes is adopted only in four editions (COBUILD2-5), which suggests that they may be seen as alternative ones. It should yet be stressed that apart from incidence, informative value distinguishes mainstream codes from alternative ones; the former reveal countability and concord alternations, while the latter center on class names.

The diachronic perspective highlights other differences between the two systems. Figure 6 shows how coding reclassifiable and collective nouns was changing in consecutive dictionary editions. The acronym for CALD1-2 is shown in brackets because of the label [group noun].

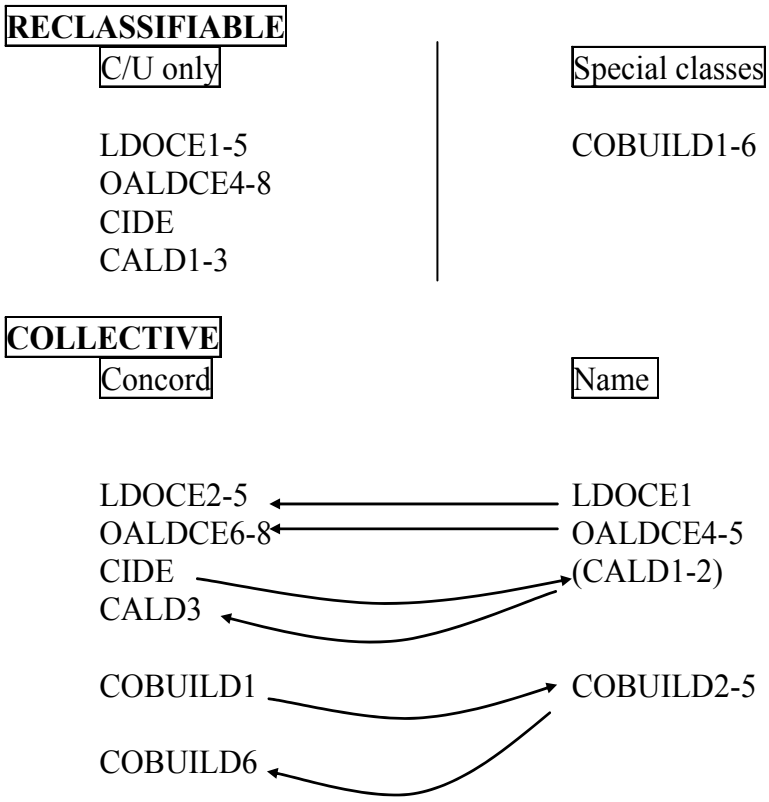

Figure 6. Evolution of noun coding systems

Clearly, there have not been any significant changes in coding reclassifiable nouns in specific dictionaries; [N-MASS] and [N-VAR] are unique to COBUILD, and the other dictionaries have always represented reclassification as countability alternation. Such consistency does not characterize the strategies for coding the syntax of collective nouns. It is clear from Figure 6 that naming the class of collective nouns in codes was temporary. In all the dictionaries where this solution had been adopted in the beginning (LDOCE1, OALDCE4-5), it was replaced by indications of subject-verb concord in number (LDOCE2-5, OALDCE6-8). However, there are also dictionaries where information on the possibility of singular and plural concord with the verb had initially been conveyed by codes for collective nouns (CIDE, COBUILD1), and then gave way to the name of the noun category (CALD1-2, COBUILD2-5). Yet, COBUILD did not stick to the symbolic representation of the name of collective nouns, and

in the sixth edition returned to the explicit information on subject-verb concord. The label [group noun], featuring in CALD1-2, is not employed in CALD3, either, where there are codes similar to those in CIDE. Referring to the name of collective nouns in codes can thus be seen as an interim solution.

By way of summarizing the above discussion, the properties of alternative and mainstream codes along with typical examples are presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Types of noun coding system: A generalization

Reclassifiable n.	[C/U]	[N MASS]; [V-VAR]
Collective n.	[C+sing./pl. v.][159]	[N-COUNT-COLL]
Information supplied	variability type	noun class name
Status	prevalent/predominant ultimate solution (collective n.)	less frequent often transitional (collective n.)
Most recently in	OALDCE8, LDOCE5, CALD3	COBUILD5
Coding system type / name	'mainstream'	'alternative'

To conclude, alternative codes limit the information on noun syntax to class names, occur in relatively few dictionaries, and, in the case of collective nouns, prove to be a transitional stage in the development of noun coding systems. Most importantly, alternative codes do not immediately reveal the key syntactic properties of either reclassifiable or collective nouns, which remain concealed beneath category names. Mainstream codes, by contrast, not only prevail in dictionaries, but also explicitly show that reclassifiable nouns can be countable and uncountable and that collective nouns allow singular and plural concord with the verb, without recourse to the names of these noun classes. Admittedly, this information may also prove useless to those who do not know what [C] and [U] stand for, or what [sing./pl.v.] means, although the latter seems quite difficult to misread. Yet, there is no denying that learners are more likely to be familiar with the notions *countable* and *uncountable* than with the much narrower categories of collective, mass or variable nouns. Needless to say, the actual value of alternative and mainstream codes can be verified only by empirical investigation.

[159] Although mainstream codes for collective nouns are not uniform, codes like [C+sing./pl. v] are most frequent. See Table 16 in section 1.4.3.2.3.

Before experimental studies into the use of codes are reviewed, it is necessary to connect the analyses of verb and noun coding systems, presented above. While it is obvious that noun and verb codes are bound to differ, there are also properties which they share. The following section brings them out.

1.4.4. Types of coding systems – an attempt at systematization

The most important facts about mainstream and alternative codes for nouns and verbs are encapsulated in Table 21.

Table 21. Mainstream and alternative noun and verb codes: A summary

		MAINSTREAM	**ALTERNATIVE**
dictionaries	**V**	COBUILD2 COBUILD3 COBUILD4 COBUILD5 COBUILD6 OALDCE5 OALDCE6 OALDCE7	LDOCE2 CIDE CALD1 CALD2 CALD3
	N	LDOCE2 LDOCE3 LDOCE4 LDOCE5 OALDCE6 OALDCE7 OALDCE8 CIDE CALD3	COBUILD2 COBUILD3 COBUILD4 COBUILD5
form	**V**	– one symbol for the verb – formal categories in patterns	– more verb symbols: a few verb symbols for the major verb classes – formal categories + sentence functions
	N	– sparing use of codes for noun classes: codes for a few noun classes only – syntactic properties explicitly indicated	– codes for many noun classes – syntactic properties implied in coded names of noun classes
example	**V**	[Vn to inf]	[T + obj + to infinitive]
		[Vn -ing]	[T + v-ing]
	N	[C / U]	[N MASS]; [N-VAR]
		[C + sing./pl. v.]	[N-COUNT-COLL]

Mainstream and alternative codes differ in frequency and form. As can be seen from the table, mainstream noun and verb codes feature in about twice as many dictionary editions as alternative ones.[160] With respect to the form of codes, the mainstream system represents a more minimalist approach; it uses a smaller set of symbols for verb and noun classes than the alternative one. There is essentially one verb symbol [V] and only the basic noun classes (mostly countable and uncountable, less often – singular) are represented in mainstream codes. By contrast, the alternative system is much less economical in this respect; verb classes have their own symbols ([T], [I], [L]) and noun categories more specific than countable or uncountable ones are also assigned their codes ([COLL], [VAR], [MASS]).

Furthermore, because of their form, mainstream codes seem more intelligible to dictionary users with only a rudimentary knowledge of grammar. Mainstream verb codes do not refer to verb classes and convey information on verb patterns by means of formal categories of linguistic description, without recourse to sentence functions. The latter are not only taught later at school than the former, but they are also explained as being realized by specific formal categories. Likewise, mainstream noun codes explicitly show the syntactic properties of collective and reclassifiable nouns: the use of singular and plural verbs with collective nouns on the one hand, and countable and uncountable uses of reclassifiable nouns – on the other. In the case of alternative verb codes, by contrast, dictionary users need to be familiar not only with the names of verb classes, but also with the syntactic function of the object. To find alternative noun codes helpful, in turn, they need to know the properties of the narrow noun classes represented symbolically in codes, which presupposes familiarity with a rather advanced noun categorization in the first place.

Nonetheless, the validity of the categories of codes, or parameters, identified above for nouns and verbs (mainstream and alternative) may be disputed. In particular, it may be doubted whether they are cogent categories with clear structural exponents, when considered for nouns and verbs combined.

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[160] COBUILD1 is not listed in the table, since, as explained in section 1.4.3.1.5, verb codes in the dictionary display only some properties of the alternative system (reference to sentence functions), but are not a typical example of the category because they are structured around one verb symbol [V].

In point of fact, it is difficult to isolate any structural exponents for the parameters distinguished for both nouns and verbs. Yet, it is by no means obvious whether such exponents can, or even should be expected to be found in coding systems for two different parts of speech. It seems that, quite the reverse, inherent structural differences between the grammatical categories and, by the same token, between the codes which represent their syntax, must be acknowledged and respected. Yet, the identification of the corresponding code types for both nouns and verbs, however infused with features specific to each part of speech they are, is not inherently flawed as long as there are common denominators, albeit non-structural ones, which bring out similarities within each category in the face of grammatical class specificity. As suggested above, incidence and form, which implies some divergence in the actual usefulness of codes and presupposes different grammar awareness in dictionary users, bring together mainstream noun and verb codes on the one hand, and alternative noun and verb codes, on the other.[161]

Nonetheless, it is worthwhile to look for some further reasons why it is difficult, if not impossible at all, to pinpoint clear structural exponents which would underlie code categorization for both nouns and verbs. First, today, dictionary coding systems are largely divorced from any specific (scholarly) approach to grammar. They do not reflect categorizations or structural analyses expounded in a grammar book or books, where such an approach would be consolidated. Besides, lexicographers do not seem (any longer) to be preoccupied with consistently parallel and systematic ways of coding nouns and verbs, or any other sets of grammatical categories, for that matter. Codes like those in LDOCE1, [D5] for *He warned her that he would come*, [T5] for *I know that he'll come* and [U5] for *Is there proof that he is here?*, which owe a lot to *A Grammar of Contempo-*

[161] It might be added that even more radical ideas have been brought up in the literature on the topic, one of which is neglecting parts of speech in dictionaries altogether. In Pullum's (2009: 271) words,

> [i]t is time to revise the conception of grammatical categories that is currently built into all dictionaries of English. … Some brave publishers must take the risk of being the first to abandon … well entrenched traditions, and of being out of step with all other dictionary publishers for a while as a result. This is not a small think to ask: no publisher wants a dictionary written up in library magazines as too radical for a school librarian to recommend for purchase.

rary English (1972) by Quirk et al. and *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1975) by Leech and Svartvik, would perfectly lend themselves to the analysis of the user-friendliness of codes across the categories of nouns and verbs. However, codes of this type are a thing of the past, unlikely to make their comeback one day. As Atkins (2002: 1) eloquently puts it, "it is becoming rarer now to find dictionaries with hermetically sealed nuggets of information coded up to defy interpretation by all but the dogged few".[162] Instead, the shape of codes is motivated primarily by the pedagogical perspective, the needs and skills of prospective dictionary users, and the trend in coding systems has been towards simplification. Second, market competition and the ensuing need to be different from rival publications seriously affect the design of pedagogical dictionaries. These factors stimulate lexicographers' intuition, inspire innovation and result in the introduction of redesign features whose empirical justification, if present at all, is hardly ever disclosed to the public (Kernerman 1996: 408, Swanepoel 2000: 407, Tono 2001: 10). These forces account, at least in part, for the different solutions adopted in noun and verb codes at a detailed level.[163] Problems with finding clear structural exponents common to noun and verb coding systems are naturally further aggravated when the systems for both parts of speech are built on an analysis of codes from a large number of dictionaries, published within the span of a few decades.

Admittedly, distinguishing categories of codes common to nouns and verbs according to structural criteria would be useful in conducting empirical research. For example, the criteria could allow manipulating coding systems for research purposes. It could then be shown empirically which specific category-internal factors determine the user-friendliness of codes. This, in turn, could pave the way for further optimization of coding systems. In the absence of clear structural exponents, it is only possible to assess the user-friendliness of actual coding systems as such, rather than any (manipulated) constituents thereof.

The classification of noun and verb codes into alternative and mainstream is limited inasmuch as not all classes of verbs and nouns were

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[162] Compare the discussion in section 1.4.3.2.2, where similarities between noun and verb codes in LDOCE1 are pointed out, and in section 1.4.3.1.2, where the role of the abovementioned grammars in the design of the dictionary coding system is mentioned.

[163] Importantly, the differences are obvious despite considerable standardization and "a fairly high degree of convergence" (Rundell 2005: 741).

taken into account. Besides, the analyzed sample of verb patterns is more diversified than that of nouns; in each class of transitive verbs many specific complementation patterns were considered. In the case of nouns, in turn, grammatical collocations were checked without any pre-selection of collocates. However, these limitations were difficult to avoid. For one thing, the analysis had to be reasonably comprehensive, but also feasible. Including more noun and verb classes might make it too extensive and inconclusive. For another, it would be impossible to consider the classes of transitive verbs without paying attention to specific complementation patterns. As regards nouns, their patterns determined by class membership were of major interest and decided the assessment of codes; grammatical collocates constituted only an ancillary aspect of the analysis. Nonetheless, it must be conceded that other classifications of codes might be developed for different (or more) noun and verb categories.

Before the empirical investigation inspired by the foregoing analysis of noun and verb coding system is presented, it is necessary to review the results obtained from previous research into the use of codes in learners' dictionaries. This is the basic purpose of the next section.

1.5. Review of previous research and hypotheses

Few empirical studies have been devoted to the usefulness and user-friendliness of verb codes, and those in which noun codes would be investigated from the same angle are virtually nonexistent. Even the studies concerned with the use of verb codes differ in their approaches to defining, measuring and analyzing the effects of interest.

Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2001) conducted a study in which they tried to compare the usefulness of information on verb complementation in three pedagogical dictionaries: LDOCE3, CIDE and COBUILD2. Two manifestations of the usefulness of such information were taken into account: its findability, measured by the look-up time needed to locate it in dictionary entries, and usability, reflected by the correctness of responses, that is partial translations of 12 Dutch sentences. The task was performed by 88 subjects, secondary school and university students of English, with the help of relevant verb entries from the aforementioned dictionaries. Regrettably, the study did not yield any statistically significant results apart from the conclusion that findability was lower among the secondary school subjects and that the extra column in COBUILD2 was largely ignored.

A year later, Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2002) published another study, in which translations of the same Dutch sentences were completed by 117 subjects, high school and university students. However, the subjects did not have complete dictionary entries at their disposal, but only pertinent verb senses. Besides, the information was standardized so as to permit systematic manipulation. Overall, four loci of syntactic information were taken into consideration: codes, modeled on those in COBUILD2, pattern illustrations, full sentence definitions and examples. The aspect of findability was excluded; only usability was studied. This largely facilitated achieving the aim of the experiment: finding out which type of information was used most and which one was most useful.

The investigation demonstrates that the university students most often used the syntactic information supplied by pattern illustrations, and then – by examples. The high school students, in turn, relied on examples, and they did not show much interest in pattern illustrations. In both groups, codes were hardly ever consulted. Consequently, the authors question the need for codes in pedagogical dictionaries (Bogaards – Van der Kloot 2002: 755-756). Additionally, the analysis of usefulness revealed no significant differences between the specific sources of syntactic information. Thus, learners appear to have no problems with making use of the information which they find in the microstructure, and they "intuitively know how to gather the information that suits them best" (Bogaards – Van der Kloot 2002: 756).

Importantly, the conclusion from the 2002 study by Bogaards and Van der Kloot that codes could be eliminated from pedagogical dictionaries of English holds for formal codes, which feature in COBUILD2 and were employed in the experiment.[164] However, it is not certain whether it is possible to generalize this suggestion to any other type of coding system. Besides, the question of the user-friendliness of codes was not addressed in either investigation conducted by Bogaards and Van der Kloot.

The user-friendliness of different ways of presenting verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries was taken as a starting point for experimental research by Dziemianko (2006). As already mentioned in section 1.1, user-friendliness is seen there as the frequency with which the various sources of verb syntax are referred to, provided that the information they convey is correctly used. Thus, correct language production on the basis

[164] See section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

of the identified syntactic information is "a necessary, although not yet sufficient condition for the user-friendliness of the source which furnishes such information. The source should also be referred to very often, or, in other words, it should present the information in a way which would attract users' attention very frequently" (Dziemianko 2006: 7).

606 native speakers of Polish took part in the study. The sample was made up of 325 high school students and 281 university students, upper intermediate and advanced in English, respectively. The subjects were given 15 multiple choice questions, each of which was accompanied by a verb entry. Information about the syntactic behavior of the verbs which were also headwords was needed to complete the task. The entries covered only the verb senses used in the task and were compiled for the purpose of the experiment on the basis of the corresponding entries in OALDCE6, LDOCE3, COBUILD2 and CIDE.

Four independent variables were systematically manipulated: the form of codes (formal vs. functional-formal), the positioning of codes (before examples vs. the extra column), definition type (analytical vs. contextual) and collocation/encoding (pattern illustration vs. codes) (Dziemianko 2006: 70). The dependent variables in the study were the identification of verb syntax in specific sources of syntactic information, as measured by the frequency of reference to these sources, once they were not only rightly marked in the entries as helpful, but also correctly used in the multiple choice task. In this way, their user-friendliness could be investigated. Four sources were taken into consideration: definitions, examples, codes and pattern illustrations. Analyses were conducted for both proficiency levels.

Obviously, the findings concerning codes are most pertinent to the present discussion. Dziemianko (2006: 185) concludes that the higher level of proficiency made it more likely for the subjects to draw on codes. This is seen as an argument for the inclusion of verb codes in dictionaries for foreign students of English (Dziemianko 2006: 188). Surprisingly enough, the presence of functional categories in codes substantially increased their user-friendliness, which turned out to be quite difficult to account for. Thus, further research into the influence of the form of codes on their user-friendliness was called for (Dziemianko 2006: 187). As already mentioned in section 1.4.3.1.3.2, the placement of codes in the extra column made them far less frequently consulted. Besides, when contextual definitions were given in verb entries, codes were not used as often as

when the definitions were analytical. It has also been found that, in general, examples and pattern illustrations were more user-friendly than codes, although, quite surprisingly, pattern illustrations were much more user-friendly to the advanced subjects than to the less proficient ones (Dziemianko 2006: 185).

It is clear, then, that the studies by Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2002) and Dziemianko (2006) lead to different conclusions. The former authors signal the superfluity of codes in pedagogical dictionaries of English, while the latter one claims the opposite. The infrequent use of verb codes even by the advanced subjects in the 2002 study is at odds with the increasing willingness of the more proficient subjects to take advantage of encoded syntactic information in the more recent investigation. However, both studies converge with respect to the relative priority of examples over codes. Dziemianko (2006: 187) also stressed the need to pay more attention to the role of the form of codes in shaping their user-friendliness, an aspect which was not considered in the other analysis.

The role of the form of codes, though in bilingual dictionaries, has recently been investigated by Tono (2011). Exploiting the potential of eye-tracking to trace the user's eye gaze across the screen, he compared reference to grammar codes of two types: [SVOO] and [make A B]. The seemingly surprising use of A and B in codes reflects a common explanatory style in Japanese. In the experiment, eight subjects consulted bilingual entries compiled for the purpose of the investigation and displayed on the computer screen. The entries were translated from LDOCE5 and MEDO (*Macmillan English Dictionary Online*) and further manipulated. The subjects were asked to find the meaning of the highlighted part of the English sentence shown on the screen. The results demonstrate no difference in the success rate between the two coding schemes. Yet, eye mark recorders revealed that only one subject used [SVOO] codes. Others figured out the pattern in the sentence and browsed examples. The [make A B] type, by contrast, was constantly accessed and guided the subjects to the target sense. Although English pedagogical dictionaries do not use the ABC system for grammar codes, Tono (2011: 145) expects similar results if pattern illustrations were compared "against [SVO] or other abstract coding variants". As a matter of fact, the empirical findings obtained by Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2002) and Dziemianko (2006), referred to above, demonstrate that pattern illustrations are indeed preferred to codes, though, admittedly, not in entry navigation.

The discussion in the previous sections highlighted two other, as yet unresearched factors whose effects on learners' reliance on encoded syntactic information are worth exploring. First, it might be interesting to see whether syntactic similarities and differences between the mother tongue of dictionary users and English influence the user-friendliness of codes. Since the study reported below is anchored in the Polish context, the role of similarities and differences in syntax between Polish and English can be investigated. Second, it seems worthwhile to determine the effect of the grammatical category of headwords. The fact that noun and verb codes are the focal points of the present investigation creates an intriguing possibility for evaluating and comparing the user-friendliness of codes for these two parts of speech.

It is noteworthy that in the existing studies on the use of syntactic codes in paper dictionaries (Bogaards and Van der Kloot 2002, Dziemianko 2006), subjects were instructed to underline in the microstructures the source(s) of information which they had found useful. Admittedly, it is possible that some underlined information was not actually used, or the other way around – some information which was not in any way marked was relied on. Yet, considering the limitations of the methods of observing paper dictionary use (Lew 2004: 43-45), it appears that underlining, imperfect as it is, remains no less reliable than many other available tools.[165] Thus, before an attempt is made to identify and examine selected aspects of look-up operations, it might be interesting to check if the presence of codes in the microstructure, irrespective of whether they were marked as helpful or not, affects the correctness of the language produced on the basis of dictionary consultation. Importantly, as noted in section 1.1, even though the specific sources of syntactic information which were actually relied on are not considered then, great care must be taken to prevent learners from resorting to intelligent guessing or drawing on the already acquired knowledge. In the absence of any research where the usefulness of entries with and without codes would be compared, the

[165] In particular, it seems to be more informative and less disruptive than self-reporting in protocols. There is a consensus (Tono 2001: 54, Wingate 2002: 20, Lew 2004: 44) that protocols may present opinions rather than facts about the consultation process, or only selected facts may eventually be recorded. They are also more likely to make subjects try to please the researcher. Even more importantly, reporting in real time interferes with the look-up process much more than underlining, and in delayed protocols essential details of dictionary consultation may be lost. Naturally, technological enhancements greatly improve the quality of observation, though mainly in computer-based designs (Lew 2011, Simonsen 2011, Tono 2011).

null hypothesis of no influence of the presence of coded syntactic information on language production will be tested.

Apart from investigating the role of the presence of codes in the microstructure, the aims of the book, defined in section 1.1, require an analysis of the user-friendliness of coded syntactic information. Thus, an attempt will be made to see how the selected factors affect the frequency of reference to codes, provided that their consultation results in correct language production. However, it should be remembered that syntactic codes are not a free-standing source of syntax in dictionaries, but, as mentioned in sections 1.1-1.2, should be illustrated in examples. It appears that in the light of the previous studies referred to above, examples can be expected to be drawn on more frequently than codes. It seems worthwhile to verify this hypothesis before going on to discuss the effects, if any, of the selected factors on the user-friendliness of codes.

Overall, the role of the following four factors in shaping the user-friendliness of coded information will be considered below: syntactic anisomorphism between Polish and English, form of codes, grammatical category of headwords and dictionary users' proficiency in English.[166] The influence of syntactic (in)congruity between dictionary users' first language and English on the user-friendliness of codes in pedagogical dictionaries has not inspired any empirical investigation whose results would be published in the available literature on the topic. Thus, the hypothesis of no effect of syntactic similarities and differences between Polish and English on the user-friendliness of codes has been assumed.

As for the role of the form of codes, it should be remembered that Dziemianko (2006) compared verb codes in which reference was made to formal categories of linguistic description with those which featured also symbols for syntactic functions. In the present study, mainstream and alternative verb and noun coding systems have been distinguished. While in the case of verbs, these two systems largely parallel, respectively, the formal and functional-formal ones in the aforementioned research, those for nouns do not. Furthermore, as pointed out above, Dziemianko's (2006) findings are surprising. For one thing, the presence of functional categories in verb codes appears to demand a more advanced knowledge

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[166] Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas-Baño (2008: 84) define anisomorphism as asymmetry between different languages, and point out that it may occur on the lexical plane, where it affects lexical units, as well and on the semantic level, where it refers to the structures of semantic fields. In the words of Hartmann and James (1998: 6), in turn, anisomorphism is "[a] mismatch between a pair of languages due to their semantic, grammatical and cultural differences".

of grammar on the part of dictionary users. For another, however, it appears to enhance the user-friendliness of codes, which seems to be largely counterintuitive (Dziemianko 2006: 187). In the case of noun codes, in turn, there is no pertinent research to refer to. Therefore, assuming no role of the form of either verb or noun codes in shaping their user-friendliness has been accepted as the most conservative approach.

Considering the relative user-friendliness of codes for two grammatical categories touches on another unexplored area in research on dictionary use. Again, with no findings from previous studies which would justify any expectations as to the role of the part of speech in this respect, no effect of this factor has been predicted. Thus, the default assumption should be that no significant difference obtains between the user-friendliness of noun and verb codes.

Finally, attention was paid to the fact that in Dziemianko's (2006) study, the level of proficiency was an important factor that affected the user-friendliness of verb codes. Although the investigation by Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2002) did not concern user-friendliness as defined in section 1.1, the authors pointed to the general neglect of verb codes among both high school and university students. In view of the divergent findings on verb codes and no pertinent research into noun codes, the hypothesis that proficiency level does not correlate with a greater tendency to consult noun or verb codes is tested below.

By way of summarizing the above discussion, the following hypotheses can be formulated:

H1. The presence of codes in the microstructure does not influence language production.
H2. Codes are less user-friendly than examples.
H3. Syntactic similarities or differences between Polish and English lexical items are not important for the user-friendliness of codes.
H4. Alternative codes are as user-friendly as mainstream ones.
H5. Word class does not affect the user-friendliness of codes.
H6. Proficiency level has no bearing on the user-friendliness of codes.

The above hypotheses except for the second one are non-directional; no significant influence of the selected factors has been foreseen. As pointed out above, to verify hypothesis one on the role of the mere presence of codes in the microstructure, there is no need to consider the sources of syntactic information found helpful by dictionary users, although their answers subjected to analysis must follow from dictionary consultation. Hypotheses two-five, in turn, which concern the user-friendliness of codes, can be tested once it has been proved that reference

to codes results in correct language production. The verification of all the hypotheses fulfills the aim of the empirical part of the book, which is to investigate the usefulness of noun and verb codes in pedagogical dictionaries of English.[167] For the sake of clarity, Table 22 recapitulates how the usefulness of codes is understood in the present study and how the verification of the hypotheses (H1-H6) contributes to the exploration of the topic.

Table 22. Usefulness of codes: Aspects and hypotheses

usefulness of codes					
presence of codes	user-friendliness of codes				
H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6

The research reported below is centered on, but not limited to, testing the hypotheses. An attempt will also be made to identify relationships about which no predictions have been formulated. Such an approach is in keeping with the conviction that scientific research can begin with specific hypotheses, but no less important are the hypotheses which it helps to develop as its end product (Selltiz et al. 1962: 39). In particular, in view of the fact that, as pointed out in section 1.1, examples supplement codes, an effort will be made to see how, if at all, the user-friendliness of examples is affected by the same factors as the user-friendliness of codes.[168]

The next chapter, which opens the empirical part of the book, describes the materials designed to achieve the second main aim of the study and verify the hypotheses. It also profiles the subjects who took part in the experiment.

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[167] See section 1.1.

[168] It is worth noting that the role of two factors taken into account in the present study, i.e., the form of codes and proficiency, has already been investigated with respect to examples (Dziemianko 2006). It turned out that functional categories in verb codes discouraged dictionary users from drawing on verbal illustrations. Proficiency, in turn, did not affect reference to examples when codes were located in the entry block. When they were placed in the extra column, examples were consulted less often by advanced learners of English than by upper-intermediate ones (Dziemianko 2006: 185). Nonetheless, since the analysis of the user-friendliness of examples below is only ancillary and goes beyond the framework adopted by Dziemianko (2006), no hypotheses have been formulated.

Chapter Two

Experimental Design

2.1. Materials

2.1.1. Questionnaires

To assess the usefulness of noun and verb codes, a controlled experiment and two surveys were conducted. The materials used in the research consisted of a test, a questionnaire for students and a questionnaire for teachers. The test played a crucial role as its primary aim was to verify the hypotheses put forward in section 1.5. Before its design is presented in the next section, both questionnaires are briefly discussed below. The questionnaires and test samples are given in Appendix A.

The subjects' questionnaire (Appendix A.1) supplied information on their dictionary reference habits, skills and needs. It also provided data necessary to identify the subject-related variables which could have had an effect on the results of the experiment. The one-page questionnaire was couched in simple language and consisted of seven or eight points, depending on test type.[1] In point one, all the subjects had to indicate their gender. Then, in point two, they judged the usefulness of the information on codes supplied in the test. They were asked whether they had read the extra material on codes, and if yes, whether it was comprehensible and useful. Naturally, this point was absent from the questionnaire given out to the subjects who consulted entries without codes.[2] In point three, the participants were requested to indicate how often, if at all, they used pedagogical dictionaries of English at home and in class. Those who denied consulting such dictionaries in both these locations were asked to

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[1] There were a few test versions, some of which lacked codes in the supplied microstructures. Details are given in section 2.1.2.1.

[2] In what follows, the points of the questionnaire appended to tests with codeless entries are discussed along with the corresponding points of the questionnaire filled out by the subjects who had access to entries with codes. Placing the question on codes in point two, and not at the end of the questionnaire, follows from the fact that the remaining part of the survey did not concern performance in the experiment.

stop filling out the questionnaire.[3] In point four, the students were to judge whether nouns or verbs motivated their dictionary consultation more often and whether looking up nouns or verbs was usually more successful. Point five was concerned with dictionary users' needs. Relevant ballpark estimates of the frequency of reference to pedagogical dictionaries for selected information categories had to be indicated. The extent to which the reference needs were satisfied by dictionary consultation, or, in other words, success in identifying the information categories in learners' dictionaries was checked in the multiple choice question in point six. Next, in point seven, the subjects' familiarity with the explanations of symbols in the pedagogical dictionaries of English which they routinely consulted was dealt with. The purpose of point eight was to obtain information on the English learners' dictionaries consulted by the participants of the study. An attempt was made to elicit as many details as possible, i.e., titles, editions, publication dates, names of editors and publishing houses.

The seven-point questionnaire for teachers of English (Appendix A.2) performed two functions. First, it made it possible to identify the institution where the experiment was conducted (point one), the student group taking part in the research (point two) and its size (point three). Second, it was necessary to judge the subjects' proficiency. The teachers were asked to supply details on the textbook used in class along with the level of target users indicated therein (point four). Besides, they were requested to assess the subjects' proficiency by selecting the most appropriate level description from the few options listed in point five. In point six, they were encouraged to furnish additional information on the students' proficiency. Finally, the date of the experiment was specified in point seven.

The research was conducted by the author herself as well as 42 test administrators, who had been briefed and given a detailed instruction in

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[3] Limiting the circumstances of dictionary consultation to class and home is no doubt crude. Yet, investigating many other situational contexts of dictionary use was not the purpose of the subjects' questionnaire and it was felt that it might overtax respondents. It was rather hoped that point three would reveal whether the subjects were used to consulting dictionaries in class and whether dictionary use was a private activity for them. Such information could be valuable inasmuch as in the experiment, in-class dictionary consultation was tested. Relative unfamiliarity with this context of dictionary use might have affected the subjects' levels of apprehension or anxiety connected with the novel situation.

writing on how to carry out the investigation (Appendix A.3).[4] The instruction spelled out the stages of the experiment and stipulated what should be done at each of them. In particular, it was made clear what the students should be informed about, how and when test and questionnaire sheets should be distributed, what exactly the subjects should do, i.e., what the tasks were and what each of them involved. The time allotted to the specific stages was specified. It was also advised that the subjects' performance be closely monitored. In addition, the instruction included guidelines on what should be done immediately after the collection of the materials and how these should be stored. Besides, a test administrator was asked to fill out the questionnaire for the teacher if s/he happened to teach English in the group who took the test, or else ask the relevant English teacher to do it.

2.1.2. The test

2.1.2.1. Design overview

The test consisted of 12 Polish sentences together with their partial English translations. In each Polish sentence, a word was underlined and the corresponding partial translation was to be completed with a given English equivalent of the underlined Polish word in an appropriate syntactic construction. The pairs of sentences were separated by a monolingual dictionary entry for the lexical item which served as the English equivalent. The subjects were requested to consult the entries and underline there the information which they considered useful in performing the translation task.

Noun and verb tests were created. That is, in a test, either nouns or verbs were underlined in Polish sentences, and either noun or verb entries were given. There were three different versions of noun and verb tests, depending on the presence and form of codes in the supplied microstructures. In one test type, all the entries featured alternative codes (*n*ouns, *c*odes – *a*lternative: NCA; *v*erbs, *c*odes – *a*lternative: VCA). In another test version, the entries included mainstream codes (*n*ouns, *c*odes – *m*ainstream: NCM; *v*erbs, *c*odes – *m*ainstream: VCM). Finally, there were also tests without any codes in the supplied microstructures (*n*ouns, *c*odes –

[4] Procedures are described in section 2.2.1.

n*o*ne: NC0; *v*erbs, *c*odes – n*o*ne: VC0). The test versions for a given part of speech differed in codes, but not in other entry components or the translation task. In addition, at the end of any test with codes, there was an explanation of the symbols used.[5]

In each test, the 12 lexical items to be employed in translation fell into two categories: six PL– items and six PL+ items. The former had to be used in syntactic structures different from those in which their Polish equivalents occurred in the sentences to be translated. Importantly, the subjects had to infer from the supplied entries that the English items cannot function in the constructions shown in the Polish sentences either at all or in the given context. By contrast, the syntactic structures in which PL+ nouns and verbs were to be used were the same as those in which the underlined Polish words functioned in the test.

To illustrate, the Polish verb *przypuszczać* in the pattern *przypuszczać, że ktoś/coś jest kimś/czymś* takes a subordinate clause introduced by *że (that-clause)*. In the test, its English equivalent *presume* required an infinitive *(presume sb/sth to be sb/sth)*, e.g.,

52.a. *Amerykański wywiad posiadał szczegółowe szkice dziesięciu utwardzonych schronów i* ***przypuszczał, że są one bunkrami****.*
52.b. *American intelligence possessed drawings of ten hardened shelters and* ***presumed them to be bunkers*** *(based on http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx).*

The verb *presume* was a PL– verb; any *that*-clause complementation was absent from the supplied entry. The verb could not thus be used in the test in the same pattern as *przypuszczać*.

By contrast, *save (sb doing sth)* and its Polish equivalent *zaoszczędzić (komuś zrobienia czegoś)* functioned in a parallel syntactic structure:

53.a. *Apteki internetowe* ***zaoszczędzą im****$_{(DAT)}$* ***stania****$_{(GEN)}$ w kolejkach.*
53.b. *Internet pharmacies will* ***save them standing*** *in queues (www.techzonez.com/comments.php?shownews=10094).*

In 53a *stania* is a verbal noun in the genitive case. The verb *save* could be used in the study as a PL+ verb, the pattern *save sb doing sth* being coded

[5] See Appendix A.4 for sample pages of all test versions and Appendix A.5 for the additional information on codes, modeled on the outside matter in CALD2, COBUILD5, LDOCE4, MEDAL1 and OALDCE7.

accordingly in the respective entry. The degree of syntactic congruence (PL– and PL+) between English and Polish lexical items is referred to below as *congruence*.[6]

There were six different test forms altogether, and the basic design structure is presented schematically in Figure 7.

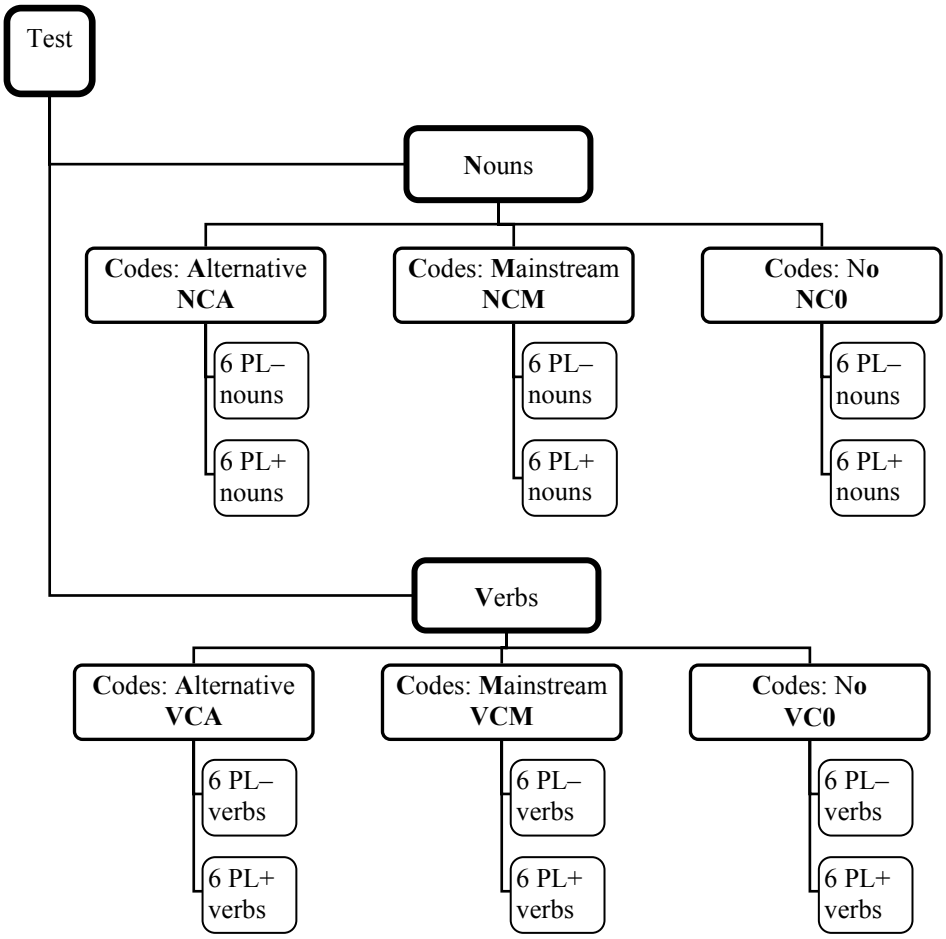

Figure 7. Test versions

The design of the study makes it possible to distinguish the following independent variables: congruence, presence of codes, form of codes, part

[6] The issue is discussed in detail in section 2.1.2.3.

of speech. Besides, since advanced and intermediate learners of English took part in the experiment (section 2.3.1), the level of proficiency was another independent variable. Importantly, each subject coped with one test. Thus, congruence was the only repeated measures (or within-group) factor; any participant dealt with both PL+ and PL– items. The other variables were between-group factors, since the analysis of their role does not entail comparing the results obtained by the same subjects.

In what follows, components of noun and verb tests are analyzed in detail. The discussion opens with an overview of the translation task and the lexical items around which it was structured (section 2.1.2.2). Syntactic properties of the lexical items which had to be used in translation are then closely examined and compared with those of their Polish counterparts (section 2.1.2.3). Finally, entry structure is expounded (section 2.1.2.4).

2.1.2.2. Lexical items, the translation task and codes – an outline

The nouns and verbs used in the test were chosen for their syntactic properties shown in the most recent pedagogical dictionaries of English at the time of the study (CALD2, COBUILD5, LDOCE4, MEDAL1 and OALDCE7). Their Polish equivalents were established mainly on the basis of the *New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary* (NKFD, 2003), a thorough update of a respectable fifty-year-old dictionary, first published by the Kościuszko Foundation in the late 1950s, popular among Polish people in the United States and Canada.[7] The syntactic patterns of the Polish nouns and verbs were checked in *Inny Słownik Języka Polskiego* (ISJP, 2000) [*An Alternative Polish Dictionary*], a dictionary of Polish for native speakers of the language, inspired by and modeled on COBUILD1, and hence known as the Polish COBUILD.[8]

The English sentences which served as partial translations were drawn mainly from corpora of English, with that the key structures were later removed from them.[9] The Polish sentences used in the experiment were

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[7] For more on the lexicographic project see Adamska-Sałaciak (2005).

[8] The origin of ISJP and its impact on other Polish dictionaries are explained in Bańko (2010).

[9] Before corpus sentences could be employed in the study, they were adapted, that is usually shortened and edited for difficult vocabulary. In a few cases, the message which they conveyed changed as a result of these alterations. Yet, the underlying aim of the

translations of the English sentences. The entries in the test were compiled on the basis of the aforementioned learners' dictionaries (CALD2, COBUILD5, LDOCE4, MEDAL1 and OALDCE7). Yet, there was no guarantee that the headwords were indeed new to advanced learners of English, or that they did not know (all) the syntactic patterns in which they can be used. Thus, the selected English nouns and verbs were ultimately replaced in the tests by much rarer ones from the *Hutchinson Dictionary of Difficult Words* (HDDW), none of which features in the wordlists of the pedagogical dictionaries consulted to design the experiment. Details on the nouns and verbs are shown in Table 23 and Table 24, respectively, where congruence levels as well as relevant alternative and mainstream codes are additionally included.[10]

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modifications was to simplify the sentences and preserve the syntactic patterns in which the selected nouns and verbs were used in as much as possible original context, even at the expense of the original message.

[10] The HDDW headwords which looked unfamiliar to advanced learners of English were chosen. Their syntax could not be a criterion, since the dictionary supplies only skimpy syntactic details; verbs are designated by *vb*, and sometimes classified as transitive (*vt*) or intranstitive (*vi*), while nouns are marked with *n*. Although the substitutes were employed to avoid activating the subjects' lexical and syntactic knowledge by words which could look familiar to them, the knowledge might have been activated by the explanation of meaning (compare section 3.1.3). Having understood the definition in a supplied entry, the subjects might have associated it with the lexical item which a given substitute replaced. Yet, the students were explicitly instructed to use the headwords, and not any other words, in the translation task. Besides, they had no grounds to suspect that the headwords behave syntactically in the same way as the other words they might have thought of. In reality, the substitutes did not raise any doubts on the part of the subjects. Some students were even noticed putting them down on separate pieces of paper, as they later explained – with a view to learning them afterwards. This proves that the substitutes were felicitous and did not look suspicious. Also, none of the participants of the study admitted to having come across them before the experiment. Whenever necessary, the association between the originally chosen nouns and verbs and their substitutes, which eventually featured in the test, is indicated below by means of brackets around the latter. For example *mould (gyle)* means that *gyle* is a substitute for *mould*. Besides, the underlined Polish lexical items and the substitutes are sometimes referred to as equivalents. Although the relationship of translation equivalence does not obtain between them, this is how they were perceived by the subjects.

Table 23. Nouns and noun codes in the study

	Congruence	**English noun**	**Polish equivalent**	**English substitute**	**Codes: Alternative**	**Codes: Mainstream**
Reclassifiable (countable / uncountable)	PL+	injustice	niesprawiedliwość	darnel	[N-VAR] [N-MASS]	[C, U] [U, C]
		mould	pleśń	gyle		
		sediment	osad	mackle		
	PL–	hardship	ciężar	chinch		
		resin	żywica	jactancy		
		veneer	okleina	turpeth		
Collective (sing./ plural concord)	PL+	team	ekipa	nautch	[N-COUNT-COLL] [N-SING-COLL]	[C+sing./pl. v.] [sing.+ sing./pl. v.]
		nobility	możnowładztwo	hachure		
		team	zaprzęg	postil		
	PL–	cast	obsada	brogan		
		crew	zgraja	chevet		
		management	szefostwo	fanion		

Table 24. Verbs and verb codes in the study

	Congruence	**English verb**	**Polish equivalent**	**English substitute**	**Codes: Alternative**	**Codes: Mainstream**
verb + (noun) + -ing clause	PL+	save	zaoszczędzić	yaffle	[T + obj + -ing] [T + -ing]	[Vn -ing] [V -ing]
		prohibit	zakazać	swage		
		preclude	uniemożliwić	purfle		
	PL–	involve	wymagać	loricate		
		envisage	przewidywać	brail		
		admit	przyznać	aurify		
verb + (noun) + to infinitive	PL+	recommend	zalecić	vellicate	[T + obj + to infinitive] [T + to infinitive]	[Vn to inf] [V to inf]
		intend	zamierzać	jess		
		instruct	nakazać	expiscate		
	PL–	petition	wnieść	osculate		
		presume	przypuszczać	roup		
		pronounce	uznać	transude		

As can be seen from the tables, a noun test involved six collective nouns: *team (people)*, *nobility*, *team (animals)*, *crew*, *cast*, *management*, which,

when in the singular, allow singular and plural concord with the verb, as well as six reclassifiable nouns, which can be used countably and uncountably: *injustice, mould, sediment, hardship, resin, veneer*. Besides, three collective nouns *(team (people), nobility, team (animals))* and three reclassifiable nouns *(injustice, mould, sediment)* functioned as PL+ items in the test, while the others – as PL– ones.

Verb tests were structured around four monotransitive verbs which need complementation by *-ing* participle clause with a subject (*envisage, involve, preclude, save*), two monotransitive verbs which take subjectless *-ing* participle clause as object (*admit, prohibit*), one monotransitive verb which requires subjectless infinitive clause as direct object (*intend*), two complex transitive verbs which take object and *to*-infinitive complementation (*presume, pronounce*), as well as three ditransitive verbs with indirect object plus *to*-infinitive clause object (*instruct, petition, recommend*).[11] Like in the case of nouns, half of the selected verbs served as PL+ items *(save, prohibit, preclude*: verb + (noun) + *-ing* clause; *recommend, intend, instruct*: verb + (noun) + to infinitive). The other verbs were used as PL– items (*involve, envisage, admit*: verb + (noun) + *-ing* clause; *petition, presume, pronounce*: verb + (noun) + to infinitive). The schematic representation of the patterns in the first column in Table 24 applies, then, to different verb categories. Yet, as observed in sections 1.4.2 and 1.4.3.1, detailed syntactic subcategorization of verbs is no longer reflected in the contemporary pedagogical dictionaries of English. Therefore, the surface patterns rather than the specific verb classes were taken into account.[12]

The arrangement of nouns and verbs in the tests was not haphazard. First, the originally selected English lexical items were arranged alphabetically, nouns separately from verbs, and assigned numbers from one to 12. For each part of speech, the numbers were randomized with the help of an on-line randomizer (http://www.random.org). The nouns and verbs were then reshuffled accordingly and replaced by the substitutes chosen arbitrarily from HDDW.

To make the design of the test more explicit, pertinent information is given in Table 25 (nouns) and Table 26 (verbs), where test components are presented along with the sources from which they were extracted.

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[11] All the verbs are assigned to the respective categories by Quirk et al. (1985).

[12] It is also the surface patterns that are usually referred to below.

Each table consists of 12 sections, arranged in the same order as the nouns and verbs in the tests. Any such section falls into four parts. The first one presents the lexical items involved in the translation task, i.e., the originally selected English lexical item, its Polish equivalent and English substitute from HDDW. The next part gives details on the translation task, i.e., the Polish sentence to be translated, its partial English translation as well as the English sentences, original and adapted, used to create the task. In the third part, devoted to congruence, the syntactic properties of the Polish lexical item underlined in the sentence to be translated are represented by means of ISJP codes, explained in English in the same row. The syntactic structure to be used in translation is indicated, and it is pointed out whether the same pattern is possible for the Polish word (PL+) or not (PL–). Finally, there is a segment where entry components (codes, definitions and examples) are presented. Those which formed the basis for entry design are marked *original*, and the adapted ones eventually used in the dictionary entries in the test are labeled *in the test*. The asterisk (*) marks the loci of syntactic information useful in the translation task.

A few words of comment are in order with respect to the English explanation of the symbols from ISJP. BEZOK, which stands for *bezokolicznik*, was rendered as *infinitive*, and not *to infinitive*, because the distinction between full and bare infinitives is nonexistent in Polish. Polish infinitives end in *-ć*, or much less often *-c*, but, in contrast to English, they are not preceded by any infinitive marker. Besides, Polish names of cases, designated in ISJP by capital letters, are represented by means of corresponding English abbreviations, i.e., *B* for *Biernik* is symbolized by *Acc*. for *Accusative*, *C (Celownik)* – by *Dat (Dative)* and *D (Dopełniacz)* – by *Gen (Genitive)*.

It should also be explained why in section 10 of Table 26 devoted to *preclude*, the Polish equivalent, *uniemożliwić*, is shown in the sentence to be translated in the structure:

54. *nie <u>uniemożliwia</u> rodzicom*$_{[Dat]}$ *kontaktowania się*$_{[Gen]}$,

where it is followed by the dative and the genitive, and not the dative and the accusative, as suggested by the code from the ISJP. The seeming discrepancy results from the fact that the direct object of *uniemożliwić*, most commonly used in the accusative indeed, takes the genitive when the verb is in the negative (Adamko 1973: 247, Olszewska 1973: 337).

Table 25. Test components: Nouns

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">1</td><td rowspan="2">Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td>team</td><td>ekipa</td><td>nautch</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Muszą pracować jak ekipa, która jest tak mocna jak jej najsłabszy członek.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">But expeditions, if they are to be successful, must work as a team which, like a chain, is as strong as its weakest link.
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="3">They must work as a team which is as strong as its weakest member.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">They must work as …… which ……as its weakest member.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of ekipa</td><td>RZ Ż [(PRZYD)]</td><td>i.e. feminine noun, optional noun modifier</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">singular concord (N-V)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for ekipa?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[N-COUNT-COLL] *
COBUILD4 (team2)</td><td>mainstream: [C+sing./pl. v.] *
OALDCE7 (team)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">a group of people who have been chosen to work together to do a particular job
LDOCE4 (team2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">people who have been chosen to work together to do a particular job</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">Penny has a wealth of catering industry experience in both operations and sales and the team is reaping the benefits of her expertise.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=team</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">Penny has a wealth of experience and the nautch is reaping the benefits of her expertise.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The Senior Management team were evidently congratulating themselves on having recruited such an able young lady.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=team</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">The nautch were congratulating themselves on having recruited such an able young lady.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>cast</td><td>obsada</td><td>brogan</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Stara obsada, która go wspierała, jest teraz co najmniej w średnim wieku, ale efekty jej pracy wciąż trwają.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The old cast, who supported him ‘through thick and even thicker’ are by now elderly, or at least middle-aged, and they are daunted by (his whims).
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">The old cast, who supported him, are now at least middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The ……..…… who supported him ……..…… …… middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *obsada*</td><td>RZ Ż</td><td colspan="2">i.e. feminine noun</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="3">plural concord (N-V)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *obsada*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[N-COUNT-COLL] *
COBUILD4 (cast1)</td><td>mainstream:
[C+sing./pl. v.] *
OALDCE7 (cast1)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">all the performers in a film, play
MEDAL1(cast1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">anyone who performs in a film, play, show</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The whole cast performs / perform brilliantly.
OALDCE7 (cast1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*The whole brogan performs brilliantly.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The show is very amusing and the cast are very good. *COBUILD4 (cast1)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*The show is very amusing and the brogan are very good.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>3</td><td>Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>nobility</td><td>możnowładztwo</td><td>hachure</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Ta ideologia cechuje się brakiem tolerancji dla przekonań politycznych możnowładztwa, które jest pewne swojej wyższości wobec innych stanów.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">Sarmatianism was characterized by an extreme intolerance of cultural, political, and religious beliefs other than those of the Polish nobility, which was convinced of its superiority not only to other social estates in Poland but to other nationalities as well. http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3763/is_200209/ai_n9096883</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">The ideology is characterized by an intolerance of the beliefs of the nobility, which is convinced of its superiority to other social estates.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The ideology is characterized by intolerance of the beliefs of the ……., which …… its superiority to other social estates.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *możnowładztwo*</td><td>RZ N NL</td><td>i.e. neuter uncountable noun</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">singular concord (N-V)</td></tr>
<tr><td>possible for *możnowładztwo*?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[N-SING-COLL]* *COBUILD4 (nobility1)*</td><td>mainstream: [sing.+ sing./pl. v.]* *OALDCE7 (nobility)*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">people of high social position who have titles such as that of duke or duchess *OALDCE7 (the nobility)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">people of high social position who usually have titles</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">Like every other class and institution, the nobility was tested in the crisis of 1808 and the French invasion: it does not seem to have failed in this test as completely as has been asserted. http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=nobility</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*Like every other class and institution, the hachure was tested in the crisis of 1808.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">All the nobility, together with the lord mayor and aldermen of the City of London, were sent for, that they might identify the body and declare that the king was truly dead. http://www.lextutor.ca/scripts/cgibin/ShowContext.exe/mega_corpus.txt/11216792/8</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*All the hachure were sent for as they might identify the body and declare that the king was truly dead.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td>crew</td><td>zgraja</td><td>chevet</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Udaje mu się jednoczyć złodziejską zgrają, która często się kłóci.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">He has also managed to unite a motley crew who often fight amongst themselves.
http://www.news-tasmania.com/gunnsfolly.html</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">He manages to unite the thievish crew who often fight amongst themselves.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">He manages to unite the thievish ……..
who …….. amongst themselves.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *zgraja*</td><td>RZ Ż [(D)]</td><td>i.e. feminine noun, optional genitive</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">plural concord (N-V)</td></tr>
<tr><td>possible for *zgraja*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntactic code</td><td>alternative: [N-SING-COLL] * *COBUILD4 (crew4)*</td><td colspan="2">mainstream: [sing.+ sing./pl. v.] * based on *OALDCE7 (crew4)*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">a group of people or friends – often used to show disapproval *LDOCE4*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">anyone who is rather dangerous and that you disapprove of</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The crew was violent and shot many people.
http://www.webspawner.com/users/cocacola6252003/</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*The chevet was violent and shot many people.*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">This crew of killers and life-wreckers are headed by the mad but cunning Nino Brown.
COBUILD4</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*This chevet of killers and life-wreckers are headed by the mad but cunning Nino Brown.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>5</td><td>Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td>mould</td><td>pleśń</td><td>gyle</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Nie zamierzamy przejmować się szczurami czy pleśnią, czy czymkolwiek w tym rodzaju.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">We’re not going to worry about rats or mould or anything like that http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">We're not going to worry about rats or mould, or anything like that.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">We’re not going to worry ……...…… ……..., or anything like that.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntax of pleśń</td><td colspan="2">RZ Ż NL</td><td>i.e. feminine uncountable noun</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="3">zero article</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for pleśń?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td>[N-MASS] * COBUILD4 (mould6)</td><td>mainstream:</td><td>[U, C] * OALDCE7 (mould3)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">a fine, soft, green, grey or black substance like fur that grows on old food or on objects that are left in warm wet air OALDCE7 (mould3)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">a fine, soft, green, grey or black substance that grows on an object when it is warm wet</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The walls were black with mould. LDOCE4 (mould4)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">The walls were black with gyle.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The chemical was used to kill a mould that grows on peanuts. LDOCE4 (mould4)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">The chemical was used to kill a gyle that grows on peanuts.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">6</td><td rowspan="2">Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td>injustice</td><td>niesprawiedliwość</td><td>darnel</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Po piąte, należy zaradzić niesprawiedliwości.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">Fifth, economic injustice is to be remedied.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=injustice</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">Fifth, injustice is to be remedied.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">Fifth, ... be remedied.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *niesprawiedliwość*</td><td>RZ Ż NL [(D)]</td><td>i.e. uncountable feminine noun, optionally followed by a genitive</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">zero article</td></tr>
<tr><td>possible for *niesprawiedliwość*?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td>[N-VAR] *
COBUILD4(injustice)</td><td>mainstream: [C, U] *
CALD2 (injustice)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">a situation in which people are treated very unfairly and not given their rights
LDOCE4 (injustice1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">a situation in which people are treated very unfairly and not given their rights</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">To contemplate withdrawing the free journal seems to me a grave injustice.
CALD2 (injustice)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*To contemplate withdrawing the free journal seems to me a grave darnel.*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The sight of people suffering arouses a deep sense of injustice in her.
CALD2 (injustice)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*The sight of people suffering arouses a deep sense of darnel in her.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>7</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English noun</td><td colspan="2">Polish equivalent</td><td colspan="2">English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">resin</td><td colspan="2">żywica</td><td colspan="2">jactancy</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="8">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="5">Jeśli fragmenty zostały preimpregnowane nieprzemakalną żywicą taką jak Epo-tek, to powinny być spojone tym samym materiałem.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">If sections have been pre-impregnated in a cold-setting resin such as Epo-tek, then they should be bonded with the same material.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=resin</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="5">If sections have been pre-impregnated with a water-proof resin such as Epo-tek, then they should be bonded with the same material.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">partial English translation</td><td colspan="5">If sections have been pre-impregnated with …… …… Epo-tek, then they should be bonded with the same material.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="8">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *żywica*</td><td colspan="2">RZ Ż NL (natural)
RZ Ż (artificial)</td><td colspan="3">i.e. feminine noun, uncountable if it refers to an artificial product</td><td>PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="5">indefinite article</td><td rowspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">possible for *żywica*?</td><td colspan="2">no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="8">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td colspan="3">alternative: [N-MASS] * *COBUILD4 (resin1,2)*</td><td colspan="4">mainstream: [U, C] * based on *OALDCE7 (resin)*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="6">1. resin is a sticky substance that is produced by some trees
2. resin is a substance that is produced chemically and used to make plastics *COBUILD4 (resin)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="6">what comes out of some trees or is produced chemically and used to make plastics</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="6">The whole area smelt of polish and resin.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=resin</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="6">*The whole area smelt of polish and jactancy.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="6">In delayed release preparations (Asacol, Claversal), 5-ASA is coated with an acrylic based resin that dissolves at a pH greater than 6. http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=resin</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="6">*This thing is coated with an acrylic based jactancy that dissolves at a pH greater than 6.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

8	Lexical items	English noun	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		sediment	osad	mackle

TRANSLATION TASK		
Polish sentence to be translated		Nie ma żadnej uszczelki do wymiany, więc zawory są odporne na twardą wodę i osad.
English sentence	original	There's no washer to replace so the taps are immune to hard water and sediment. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx
	adapted	There's no washer to replace so the taps are immune to hard water and sediment.
partial English translation		There's no washer to replace so the taps are immune to …….

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *osad*	RZ MRZ [(D/z-D)]	i.e. masculine inanimate noun, optionally followed by a genitive, or the preposition *'z'* and a genitive	PL+
syntax needed in translation	zero article		
	possible for *osad*?	yes	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[N-VAR] * COBUILD4 *(sediment)*	mainstream:	[C, U] * *CALD2, MEDAL1 (sediment)*
definition	original	solid substances that settle at the bottom of a liquid *LDOCE4 (sediment)*		
	in the test	a solid substance that settles at the bottom of a liquid		
example 1	original	The worms were divided up among the twelve treatments, six in a high TOC sediment and six in a low TOC sediment. http://www-mcnair.berkeley.edu/93BerkeleyMcNairJournal/BrianSimon.html		
	in the test	*The worms were divided up among the twelve treatments, six in a high TOC mackle and six in a low TOC mackle.*		
example 2*	original	To clear sediment from the wine, he stood the bottles upright and froze the necks to trap it. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx		
	in the test	*To clear mackle from the wine, he stood the bottles upright and froze the necks to trap it.*		

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">9</td><td rowspan="2">Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td>team</td><td>zaprzęg</td><td>postil</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Zaprzęg konny, który ugrzązł w błocie, był bardzo powolny i ociężały, jak wskazują jego wyniki.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The ox team is very slow and sluggish, and sticks worse in the mud than the mules; but all the wagons are heavily loaded, and the prairie is soft; it rained hard in the night. http://www.jlindquist.com/allen2.html</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">The horse team which stuck in the mud was very slow and sluggish, as its results show.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The …… which stuck in the mud ……..… and sluggish, as its results show.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *zaprzęg*</td><td>RZ MRZ</td><td>i.e. masculine inanimate noun</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">singular concord (N-V)</td></tr>
<tr><td>possible for *zaprzęg*?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[N-COUNT-COLL] *</td><td>mainstream: [C+sing./pl. v.] * *OALDCE7 (team)*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">two or more animals that are used to pull a vehicle *LDOCE4 (team3)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">two or more animals that are used to pull a vehicle</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The 20 mule team lives on around the world as a symbol of success – from the founding pioneers who shipped the mineral through an unrelenting desert to current Borax leaders and employees, the same spirit of innovation and dedication prevails. http://www.scvhistory.com/scvhistory/borax-20muleteam.htm</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*The 20 mule postil lives on around the world as a symbol of success.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">He had an arrangement with the neighborhood by which his horse team were made available to him in doing the milling for a large number of families at the mills of DAVID SMITH. www.usgennet.org/usa/ny/county/efferson/hounsfield/blodgettaaron.html</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*His ox postil were made available to others in doing the milling for a large number of families.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>10</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">veneer</td><td>okleina</td><td>turpeth</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Podstawa ma białą <u>okleinę</u> aby łatwo było utrzymać czystość, a reszta ma charakterystyczne bardzo gładkie wykończenie z drzewa kauczukowego.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">The base has a white veneer for easy cleaning, and the body has the distinctive satin finish of rubberwood.
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="3">The base has a white veneer for easy cleaning, and the rest has the distinctive satin finish of rubberwood.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The base ……. for easy cleaning, and the rest has the distinctive satin finish of rubber wood.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *okleina*</td><td>RZ Ż</td><td colspan="2">i.e. feminine noun</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="3">indefinite article</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *okleina*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td colspan="2">alternative: [N-VAR] *
COBUILD4 (veneer2)</td><td colspan="3">mainstream: [C, U] *
CALD2, OALDCE7, MEDAL1 (veneer1)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">a thin layer of wood or plastic that covers the surface of a piece of furniture made of cheaper material, to make it look better
LDOCE4 (veneer1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">what covers the surface of furniture made of cheaper material to make it look better</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">Finally, a pleasantly-grained veneer of dark ash has been used as a finish on the front and back of the headstock.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=veneer</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">*A pleasantly-grained turpeth of dark ash has been used as a finish.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">It is solid oak, not veneer.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=veneer</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">*It is solid oak, not turpeth.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

11	Lexical items	English noun	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		management	szefostwo	fanion

TRANSLATION TASK		
Polish sentence to be translated		Trudno aby szefostwo, które bierze takie podwyżki, było wiarygodne, kiedy domaga się ograniczenia płac.
English sentence	original	It is difficult for management who are taking this kind of pay rises to be credible when they call for wage restraint. http://www.edict.com.hk/scripts/cgi-bin/ShowContext.exe/TimesJan95.txt/20025199/10
	adapted	It is difficult for the management who are taking such pay rises to be credible when they call for wage restraint.
Partial English translation		It is difficult for the ……..…..who …… …… pay rises to be credible when they call for wage restraint.

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *szefostwo*	RZ N NL [(D)]	i.e. neuter uncountable noun, optionally followed by a genitive	PL–
syntax needed in translation	plural concord (N-V)		
	possible for *szefostwo*?	no	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[N-COUNT-COLL] * based on *COBUILD4 (management2)*	mainstream:	[C+sing./pl. v.] * based on *OALDCE7 (management2)*
definition	original	the group of people responsible for controlling and organizing a company *CALD2 (management)*		
	in the test	anyone who is responsible for controlling and organizing a company		
example 1	original	The management has agreed to the policy. *LDOCE4 (management)*		
	in the test	*The fanion has agreed to the policy.*		
example 2*	original	The management is / are considering closing the factory. *OALDCE7 (management2)*		
	in the test	*The fanion are considering closing the factory.*		

Table 25. Test components: Nouns (continued)

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">12</td><td rowspan="2">Lexical items</td><td>English noun</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td>hardship</td><td>ciężar</td><td>chinch</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">BBC mogłoby pozwolić sobie na większą hojność w stosunku do tych, dla których opłata jest prawdziwym ciężarem.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The BBC could afford to be more generous to those for whom the fee is a hardship.
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">The BBC could afford to be more generous to those for whom the fee is a real hardship.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The BBC could afford to be more generous to those for whom the fee ……..</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *ciężar*</td><td>RZ MRZ [(D)]</td><td>i.e. masculine inanimate noun, optionally followed by a genitive</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">indefinte article</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *ciężar*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td colspan="2">alternative: [N-VAR] * *COBUILD4 (hardship)*</td><td colspan="2">mainstream: [C, U] * *CALD2, MEDAL1 (hardship)*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">(something which causes) difficult or unpleasant conditions of life, or an example of this
CALD2 (hardship)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">difficult or unpleasant conditions of life</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">Another equally banal excuse was that it would be a hardship for Blake’s wife to visit him if he was moved away from London.
http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=hardship</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*It would be a chinch for Blake's wife to visit him if he was moved away from London.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">Many students are facing financial hardship.
(MEDAL1 hardship)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*Many students are facing financial chinch.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs

1	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		involve	wymagać	loricate

TRANSLATION TASK				
Polish sentence to be translated		Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagałoby od kierowców, aby kupowali zdrapki do zaznaczenia długości postoju.		
English sentence	original	… and Guisborough are attacking Langbaurgh Council plans to introduce fees for car parking which would involve drivers buying scratch cards and marking off the length of stay. http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/x4.asp?t=3670&ID=135444656		
	adapted	Introducing fees for car parking would involve drivers buying scratch cards to mark the length of stay.		
partial English translation		Introducing fees for car parking would …… …….. scratch cards to mark the length of stay.		
CONGRUENCE				
syntax of *wymagać*	CZ PCH NDK [(*od*-D)+D/ABY]	CZ=V, PCH=transitive, NDK=imperfective *od*=Prep *od*, D=Gen., ABY=a subordinate clause introduced by *aby, żeby, by, ażeby*		PL–
syntax needed in translation	[T + obj + -ing] / [Vn ing]			
	possible for *wymagać*?		no	
ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + obj] [T + -ing] [T + obj + -ing] * *based on CALD2 (involve)*	mainstream:	[Vn] [V -ing] [Vn -ing] * *OALDCE7 (involve1)*
definition	original	to include sth as a necessary part of an activity, event or situation *MEDAL1 (involve1)*		
	in the test	to include something as a necessary part		
example 1	original	The course involves a great deal of hard work. *MEDAL1 (involve1)*		
	in the test	*The course loricates a great deal of hard work.*		
example 2	original	Running your own business usually involves working long hours. *LDOCE4 (involve)*		
	in the test	*Running your own business usually loricates working long hours.*		
example 3*	original	The job involves me travelling all over the country. *OALDCE7 (involve1)*		
	in the test	*The job loricates me travelling all over the country.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>2</td><td>Lexical items</td><td>English verb</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td>envisage</td><td>przewidywać</td><td>brail</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Brytyjczycy przewidują, że wojska ONZ zastąpią oddziały irackie na tym terenie.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">The British envisage UN troops replacing Iraqi forces in the area.
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">The British envisage UN troops replacing Iraqi forces in the area.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">The British …….... Iraqi forces in the area.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntax of *przewidywać*</td><td>CZ PCH DK-NDK [B/ŻE/PYT]</td><td colspan="2">CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective B=Acc., ŻE=a subordinate clause introduced by *że* or *iż*, PYT=a subordinate clause introduced by an interrogative pronoun or the particle *czy*</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="3">[T + obj + -ing] / [Vn -ing]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *przewidywać*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td>[T + -ing]
[T + obj + -ing] *
[T + question word]
based on CALD2 (envisage1)</td><td>mainstream:</td><td>[V -ing]
[Vn -ing] *
[V -wh]
OALDE7, COBUILD4 (envisage)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">to consider something as possible or what you intend
MEDAL1 (envisage)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">to consider something as possible</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">I don’t envisage working with him again.
LDOCE4 (envisage)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*I don’t brail working with him again.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">I can’t envisage her coping with this job.
OALDCE7(envisage)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*I can’t brail her coping with this job.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 3</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">It’s hard to envisage how it could have happened.
CALD2 (envisage1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="3">*It’s hard to brail how it could have happened.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

3	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		recommend	zalecić	vellicate

TRANSLATION TASK				
Polish sentence to be translated		Zalecamy wam kupić bilety z dużym wyprzedzeniem, aby uniknąć rozczarowania.		
English sentence	original	We do most strongly recommend you to purchase your tickets well in advance to avoid disappointment http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx		
	adapted	We recommend you to buy tickets well in advance to avoid disappointment.		
partial English translation		We ……..…… well in advance to avoid disappointment.		
CONGRUENCE				
syntax of *zalecić*	CZ PCH DK-NDK [(C) + B/ABY/BEZOK]	CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective C=Dat., B=Acc., ABY=a subordinate clause introduced by *aby, żeby, by, ażeby*, BEZOK=infinitive		PL+
syntax needed in translation	[T + obj + to infinitive] / [Vn to inf]			
	possible for *zalecić*?		yes	
ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + obj] [T + obj + to infinitive] * [T + question word] *based on CALD2 (recommend)*	mainstream:	[Vn] [Vn to inf] * [V wh-] *OALDCE7 (recommend2)*
definition	original	to suggest that someone or something would be good or suitable for a particular job or purpose, or to suggest that a particular action should be done *CALD2 (recommend)*		
	in the test	to suggest that a particular action should be done		
example 1	original	The report recommended a 10% pay increase. *OALDCE7 (recommend2)*		
	in the test	*The report vellicated a 10% pay increase.*		
example 2*	original	We'd recommend you to book your flight early. *OALDCE7 (recommend2)*		
	in the test	*We'd vellicate you to book your flight early.*		
example 3	original	A professional quality package deal recommended where work is for resale. h*ttp://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx*		
	in the test	*A package deal vellicated where work is for resale.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>4</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English verb</td><td colspan="2">Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">admit</td><td colspan="2">przyznać</td><td>aurify</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="5">Po ceremonii <u>przyznał</u>, że czuje się trochę zdenerwowany.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">After the ceremony, he admitted feeling a little nervous.
news.mainetoday.com/war/homefront/050130deploy.shtml</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="4">After the ceremony, he admitted feeling a little nervous.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="5">After the ceremony, he ……...a little nervous.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *przyznać*</td><td>CZ DK
[(C) + (ŻE)]</td><td colspan="3">CZ=V, DK=perfective
C=Dat., ŻE=a subordinate clause introduced by *że* or *iż*</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="4">[T + -ing] / [V -ing]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *przyznać*?</td><td colspan="2">no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[T + obj]
[T + -ing] *
[T + obj + to infinitive]
based on CALD2 (admit)</td><td>mainstream:</td><td colspan="2">[Vn]
[V -ing] *
[Vn to inf]
OALDCE7 (admit1)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">to agree, often unwillingly, that sth is true *OALDCE7 (admit1)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">to tell others, often unwillingly, about something which is true</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">She stubbornly refuses to admit the truth.
OALDCE7 (admit1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*She stubbornly refuses to aurify the truth.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">He is unwilling to admit being jealous of his brother.
MEDAL1 (admit1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*He is unwilling to aurify being jealous of his brother.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 3</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">For tho’ we admit it to be the indisputable right of the Citizen to apply to the Legislature by Petition on any or otherwise Subject within the Cognizance of their constitutional Powers.
http://press-pubs.uchicago.edu/founders/documents/v1ch16s14.html</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*We aurify it to be the right of the Citizen to apply to the Legislature.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

5	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		petition	wnieść	osculate

TRANSLATION TASK		
Polish sentence to be translated		Mieszkańcy wsi <u>wnoszą,</u> aby władze lokalne zapewniły lepsze usługi autobusowe.
English sentence	original	Villagers petitioned the local authority to provide better bus services. *LDOCE4 (petition1)*
	adapted	Villagers petition the local authority to provide better bus services.
partial English translation		Villagers ……..……..…… ……..better bus services.

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *wnieść*	CZ DK-NDK ZWYKLE NDK [o-B/ABY]	CZ=V, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective ZWYKLE NDK=usu. imperfective *o*=Prep *o*, B=Acc., ABY=a subordinate clause introduced by *aby, żeby, by, ażeby*	PL–
syntax needed in translation	[T + obj + to infinitive] / [Vn to inf]		
	possible for *wnieść*?	no	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + obj] [T + obj + to infinitive] * [T + to infinitive] *based on CALD2 (petition)*	mainstream:	[Vn] [Vn to inf] * [V to inf] *OALDCE7 (petition1), COBUILD4 (petition3)*
definition	original	to make a formal request to sb in authority, especially by sending them a petition *OALDCE7 (petition1)*		
	in the test	to put in a formal request		
example 1	original	All the attempts to petition the Congress had failed. *COBUILD4 (petition3)*		
	in the test	*All the attempts to osculate the Congress had failed.*		
example 2*	original	Parents petitioned the school to review its admission policy. *OALDCE7 (petition1)*		
	in the test	*Parents osculated the school to review its admission policy.*		
example 3	original	She's petitioning to regain custody of the child. *COBUILD4 (petition3)*		
	in the test	*She's osculating to regain custody of the child.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

6	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		intend	zamierzać	jess

TRANSLATION TASK		
Polish sentence to be translated		Wirus Eboli spowodował pewne zaniepokojenie wśród podróżników, którzy zamierzają odwiedzić Afrykę.
English sentence	original	The Ebola virus in the town of Kikwit, in south-western Zaire, has caused some panic among travellers who intend to visit Africa. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx
	adapted	The Ebola virus has caused some panic among travellers who intend to visit Africa.
partial English translation		The Ebola virus has caused some panic among travellers who ……...

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *zamierzać*	CZ PCH DK-NDK ZWYKLE NDK [BEZOK/B]	CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective ZWYKLE NDK=usu. imperfective BEZOK=infinitive, B=Acc.	PL+
syntax needed in translation	[T + to infinitive] / [V to inf]		
	possible for *zamierzać*?	yes	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + that] [T + to infinitive] * [T + obj + as + n] *based on CIDE (intend), CALD2 (intend)*	mainstream:	[V that] [V to inf] * [Vn *as* n] *OALDCE7 (intend1), COBUILD4 (intend1)*
definition	original	to have something in your mind as a plan or purpose *LDOCE4 (intend1)*		
	in the test	to keep something in your mind as a plan or purpose		
example 1	original	We had always intended that the new series would be live. *COBUILD4 (intend1)*		
	in the test	*We had always jessed that the new series would be live.*		
example 2*	original	I intend to spend the night there. *LDOCE4 (intend1)*		
	in the test	*I jess to spend the night there.*		
example 3	original	She intended it as a joke but a lot of people took her seriously. *CIDE (intend)*		
	in the test	*She jessed it as a joke but a lot of people took her seriously.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

7	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		instruct	nakazać	expiscate

TRANSLATION TASK				
Polish sentence to be translated		Nakazał jej obserwować hol.		
English sentence	original	Dropping to his knees he instructed her to watch the hall. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx		
	adapted	He instructed her to watch the hall.		
partial English translation		He ……..…….. the hall.		

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *nakazać*	CZ PCH DK-NDK [(C) + (B/BEZOK/ABY/OK)]	CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective C=Dat., B=Acc., BEZOK=infinitive, ABY=a subordinate clause introduced by *aby, żeby, by, ażeby*, OK=adverbial	PL+
syntax needed in translation	[T + obj + to infinitive] / [Vn to inf]		
	possible for *nakazać*?	yes	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + obj + question word] [T + speech] [T + obj + to infinitive] * *based on CALD2 (instruct1)*	mainstream:	[Vn -wh] [V speech] [Vn to inf] * *OALDCE7 (instruct1), COBUILD4 (instruct1)*
definition	original	to tell sb to do sth, especially in a formal or official way SYN direct, order *OALDCE7 (instruct1)*		
	in the test	charge someone with a responsibility or task, especially in a formal or official way		
example 1	original	He had instructed the slaves what to say when questioned. *LDOCE4 (instruct1)*		
	in the test	*He had expiscated the slaves what to say when questioned.*		
example 2	original	"Go and have a word with her", Webb instructed. *COBUILD4 (instruct1)*		
	in the test	*"Go and have a word with her", Webb expiscated.*		
example 3*	original	The letter instructed him to report to headquarters immediately. *OALDCE7 (instruct1)*		
	in the test	*The letter expiscated him to report to headquarters immediately.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>8</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English verb</td><td colspan="2">Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">save</td><td colspan="2">zaoszczędzić</td><td>yaffle</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="4">Być może konsumenci mają nadzieję, że apteki internetowe zaoszczędzą im stania w kolejkach.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">While consumers might hope that internet pharmacies will save them standing in queues, they may yet be disappointed www.techzonez.com/comments.php?shownews=10094</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="4">Consumers might hope that internet pharmacies will save them standing in queues.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Partial English translation</td><td colspan="4">Consumers might hope that internet pharmacies will …… ……..in queues.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *zaoszczędzić*</td><td colspan="2">CZ DK-NDK
[C + D]</td><td colspan="2">CZ=V, PCH=transitive,
DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective
C=Dat., D=Gen.</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="4">[T + obj -ing] / [Vn -ing]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">possible for *zaoszczędzić*?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[T + obj]
[T + -ing]
[T + obj + -ing] *
based on CALD2 (save)</td><td>mainstream:</td><td colspan="2">[Vn]
[V -ing]
[Vn -ing] *
OALDCE7 (save6)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">to help someone by making it unnecessary for them to do something that they do not want to do *LDOCE4 (save6)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">to make it unnecessary for someone to do something</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">Setting down clear rules from the start will save arguments later on. *MEDAL1 (save3)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*Setting down clear rules from the start will yaffle arguments later on.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">He’s grown a beard to save shaving.
OALDCE7 (save6)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*He’s grown a beard to yaffle shaving.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 3*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">I’ll take the shopping home in the car to save you carrying it.
LDOCE4 (save6)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">*I’ll take the shopping home in the car to yaffle you carrying it.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

9	Lexical items	English verb	Polish equivalent	English substitute
		prohibit	zakazać	swage

TRANSLATION TASK		
Polish sentence to be translated		Rozważny rodzic musi zdecydować, czy <u>zakazać</u> oglądania telewizji.
English sentence	original	The sensible parent must weigh up all considerations, as if in credit and debit columns on a balance sheet, when deciding whether or not to prohibit watching television thrillers or playing with guns. http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=prohibit
	adapted	The sensible parent must decide whether or not to prohibit watching television.
Partial English translation		The sensible parent must decide whether or not to ……

CONGRUENCE			
syntax of *zakazać*	CZ PCH DK-NDK [C + D/BEZOK]	CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective C=Dat., D=Gen., BEZOK=infinitive	PL+
syntax needed in translation	[T + -ing] / [V -ing]		
	possible for *zakazać*?	yes	

ENTRY STRUCTURE				
syntactic code	alternative:	[T + obj] [T + -ing] * [T + obj + to infinitive] *based on CALD2 (prohibit1)*	mainstream:	[Vn] [V -ing] * [Vn to inf] *OALDCE7 (prohibit1), COBUILD4 (prohibit)*
definition	original	to say that an action is illegal or not allowed [= ban, forbid] *LDOCE4 (prohibit1)*		
	in the test	to say that an action is illegal or not allowed		
example 1	original	The government introduced a law prohibiting tobacco advertisements on TV. *CALD2 (prohibit1)*		
	in the test	*The government swaged tobacco advertisements on TV.*		
example 2*	original	The charge was dismissed on the ground that Michigan state law did not prohibit assisting someone to commit suicide. *http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=prohibit*		
	in the test	*Michigan state law did not swage assisting someone to commit suicide.*		
example 3	original	Federal law prohibits foreign airlines from owning more than 25% of any U.S. airline. *COBUILD4 (prohibit)*		
	in the test	*Federal law swages foreign airlines to own more than 25% of any U.S. airline.*		

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>10</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English verb</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">preclude</td><td>uniemożliwić</td><td>purfle</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="4">To oczywiście nie uniemożliwia rodzicom kontaktowania się ze szkołą kiedykolwiek zajdzie potrzeba.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="3">This of course, does not preclude parents contacting the School whenever necessary. http://thetis.bl.uk/cgi-bin/saraWeb?qy=preclude</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="3">This of course does not preclude parents contacting the School whenever necessary.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="4">This of course ……. the School whenever necessary.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *uniemożliwić*</td><td>CZ PCH DK-NDK [(C) + B]</td><td colspan="2">CZ=V, PCH=transitive, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective C=Dat., B=Acc.</td><td rowspan="3">PL+</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="3">[T + obj + -ing] / [Vn -ing]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">possible for *uniemożliwić*?</td><td>yes</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="6">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td>syntactic code</td><td colspan="2">alternative:</td><td>[T + obj]
[T + obj + -ing] *
[T + -ing]</td><td>mainstream:</td><td>[Vn]
[Vn -ing] *
[V -ing]
OALDCE7 (preclude)
COBUILD4 (preclude1)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">to prevent something or make something impossible *LDOCE4 (preclude)*</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">make something impossible</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">This policy precludes the routine use of chemicals.
MEDAL1 (preclude)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">*This policy purfles the routine use of chemicals.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">His religious beliefs precluded him / his serving in the army.
OALDCE7 (preclude)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">*His religious beliefs purfled him serving in the army.*</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">example 3</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">Alan's disability precluded going back to college.
http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="4">*Alan's disability purfled going back to college.*</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td>11</td><td>Lexical items</td><td colspan="2">English verb</td><td colspan="2">Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2">presume</td><td colspan="2">przypuszczać</td><td>roup</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="5">Amerykański wywiad posiadał rysunki dziesięciu utwardzonych schronów i przypuszczał, że są one bunkrami.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="4">American intelligence possessed detailed drawings of the ten hardened shelters and presumed them to be incipient command bunkers. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="4">American intelligence possessed drawings of ten hardened shelters and presumed them to be bunkers.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="5">American intelligence possessed drawings of ten hardened shelters and …… bunkers.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of przypuszczać</td><td colspan="2">CZ DK-NDK
ZWYKLE NDK
[ŻE/PYT/OK]</td><td colspan="2">CZ=V, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective
ZWYKLE NDK=usu. imperfective
ŻE=a subordinate clause introduced by że or iż, PYT=a subordinate clause introduced by an interrogative pronoun or the particle czy, OK=adverbial</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="4">[T + obj + to infinitive] / [Vn to inf]</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">possible for przypuszczać?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="7">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td colspan="2">[T + obj]
[T + obj + to infinitive]*
[T + obj + adj]
based on CALD2 (presume BELIEVE)</td><td>mainstream:</td><td>[Vn]
[Vn to inf]*
[Vn adj]
OALDCE7 (presume2)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">to believe something to be true because it is very likely, although you are not certain CALD2 (presume)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">regard something as true, although you are not certain</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">We must presume innocence until we have proof of guilt. OALDCE7 (presume2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">We must roup innocence until we have evidence of guilt.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 2*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">From the way he talked, I presumed him to be your boss. LDOCE4 (presume1)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">From the way he talked, I rouped him to be your boss.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 3</td><td>original</td><td colspan="5">He was presumed least prepared by training. http://www.collins.co.uk/Corpus/CorpusSearch.aspx</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="5">We roup him least prepared by training.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 26. Test components: Verbs (continued)

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">12</td><td rowspan="2">Lexical items</td><td>English verb</td><td>Polish equivalent</td><td>English substitute</td></tr>
<tr><td>pronounce</td><td>uznać</td><td>transude</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">TRANSLATION TASK</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Polish sentence to be translated</td><td colspan="3">Jeśli on to widzi, uznaję, że ma on skrzywioną wyobraźnię.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">English sentence</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">If (said he) a man tells me that he is grievously disturbed, for that he imagines he sees a ruffian coming against him with a drawn sword, though at the same time he is conscious it is a delusion, I pronounce him to have a disordered imagination; but if a man tells me that he sees this, and in consternation calls to me to look at it, I pronounce him to be mad. http://andromeda.rutgers.edu/~jlynch/Texts/melan.html</td></tr>
<tr><td>adapted</td><td colspan="2">If he sees this, I pronounce him to have a disordered imagination.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">partial English translation</td><td colspan="3">If he sees this, I …….... disordered imagination.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">CONGRUENCE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntax of *uznać*</td><td>CZ DK-NDK [ŻE]</td><td>CZ=V, DK-NDK=perfective-imperfective
ŻE=a subordinate clause introduced by *że* or *iż*</td><td rowspan="3">PL–</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">syntax needed in translation</td><td colspan="2">[T + obj + to infinitive] / [Vn to inf]</td></tr>
<tr><td>possible for *uznać*?</td><td>no</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">ENTRY STRUCTURE</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">syntactic code</td><td>alternative:</td><td>[T + obj + n]
[T + obj + adj]
[T + obj + to infinitive]*
based on CALD2 (pronounce TO STATE)</td><td>mainstream:
[Vnn]
[Vn adj]
[Vn to inf]*
OALDCE7 (pronounce2)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">definition</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">to formally state an official opinion or decision
MEDAL1 (pronounce2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">to formally pass an opinion</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 1</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">She pronounced him the winner of the competition.
OALDCE7 (pronounce2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*She transudes him the winner of the competition.*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 2</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">A specialist has now pronounced him fully fit.
COBUILD4 (pronounce2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*A specialist has now transuded him fully fit.*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">example 3*</td><td>original</td><td colspan="2">He pronounced the country to be in a state of war.
OALDCE7 (pronounce2)</td></tr>
<tr><td>in the test</td><td colspan="2">*He transuded the country to be in a state of war.*</td></tr>
</table>

2.1.2.3. Congruence

2.1.2.3.1. Nouns

2.1.2.3.1.1 Reclassifiable nouns

2.1.2.3.1.1.1. Reclassification and the English article system

As pointed out in section 1.4.1, an uncountable noun can be reclassified as a countable one with a semantic shift so as to denote quality partition, that is some kind, type, brand, form, unit or instance of something more general (Quirk et al. 1985: 248, 298-299).[13] For concrete nouns, the relationship between uncountable and countable is typically that of meat – animal, material – object, substance – a specific kind of substance, while for abstract nouns it is one of generality – instantiation or individuation. In broad terms, the uncountable sense refers to some substance or general abstraction, while the count sense – to an instantiation of this wider sense. Sometimes, it may be even difficult to tell a kind from an instance. In the case of *a serious danger*, for example, both interpretations seem to be plausible (Svensson 1998: 163, 166).

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[13] Lyons (1968: 282) labels the process *secondary recategorization*. Alternative terms cited in the literature on the subject include *conversion, zero-derivation* (Svensson 1998: 159) or *class-cleavage* (Bloomfield 1933: 205). The terms *uncountable* and *countable* are not the only ones used in this respect, either. Svensson (1998: 12) refers also to the *mass-count* distinction, but points out that he employs both pairs *(uncountable-countable* and *mass-count)* interchangeably. Jespersen (1924: 198 as cited in Svensson 1998: 11), the first to recognize and describe the distinction between count and mass nouns in English, introduced the notion *uncountable* and coined the terms *mass-words* and *thing-words*. Interestingly enough, he also noted that "[i]t is not possible linguistically to keep the category of mass-words clearly distinct from countables because many words are used in both capacities" (Jespersen 1933 [1960]: 262). Having found it difficult to reconcile himself to "calling something so spiritual as *love* 'a mass' ", Christophersen (1939: 26) proposed the terms *continuate-words* and *unit-words* instead. Bloomfield (1933: 205), in turn, refers to *unbounded nouns* and *bounded nouns*, the former being further subdivided into *mass nouns* and *abstract nouns*. Quirk et al. (1985), by contrast, prefer the terms *noncount* and *count*. In what follows, the terms *uncountable* and *countable* are used mainly because it is they that usually appear in pedagogical dictionaries, as shown in chapter one. Other terms are occasionally cited as well, primarily when the works where they feature are discussed.

Allan (1980: 547) argues that it is "absurd to propose that countability is a function of nouns per se." He is of the opinion that referring to countable and uncountable uses of nouns is more appropriate, as most nouns can be used both countably and uncountably, and there seems to be no absolute constraint to prevent any nouns, apart from pluralia tantum and proper names, from functioning as uncountable ones.[14] Allan (1980: 548, 566) suggests that nouns have countability preferences; some of them are more often located in countable noun phrases than others. There are also nouns which occur freely in both. Svensson (1998: 159), in turn, distinguishes a few types of reclassification, among which there is reclassification from mass to count and from count to mass. He also points out that the process may be characterized by various levels of permanence; some nouns can be used in a non-typical way under specific conditions, while others may shift almost permanently from one class to another.

As a general rule, nouns are used uncountably when "either the composition of the substance denoted by the noun does not readily permit division into 'natural units', or, if this is not the case, then such 'natural units' are not regarded as significant – either ordinarily, or in a particular context – by the language user" (Allan 1976: 108). Thus, countability, a linguistic category, has perceptual correlations; the perception of the sali-

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[14] Gleason (1965: 137) holds that "every noun, given the right context can occur in either type of usage, count or mass". He suggests that even the typically countable nouns *book* and *shelf* can be used uncountably when they represent the food of a termite, rather than specific objects. It is interesting to note that Allan (1980: 547) refers to Pelletier's (1975) idea of a "'universal grinder' into which can be fed any object labeled by a countable; the grinder chops and grinds it into a homogeneous mass, which is then appropriately labeled by the same noun used uncountably". Oddly enough, the output is scattered over the floor. Thus, inserting a banana into the grinder would result in banana all over the floor. Naturally, the universal grinder needs to be equipped with some "filter constructed by background knowledge draped over its outlet … [to] assure the removal of pips, stalks and outer leaves from foodstuffs" (Dunbar 1991: 72). The contraption illustrates Pelletier's (1975: 457) point that a mass or count sense of a word exists if it is possible to secure the right context in which the word in the required sense can be employed. In his view, it is not at all necessary that an object be grindable, but only that the word in a mass sense be used in a regular sentence. However, the grinder seems obviously most suitable for physical entities, but not abstractions; it is doubtful whether it would cope with grinding the referent of *hole* (Svensson 1998: 164-165). On the other hand, there is the universal packager involved in the reverse process; the machine turns masses into units. Its usability is even more restricted than that of the grinder, though. For example, "not all things made of glass are called *a glass*" (Svensson 1989: 165).

ent characteristics of entities in a given situation is correlated with the use of nouns as countable or uncountable ones (Allan 1977: 308). Similar remarks were made much earlier by Christophersen (1939: 27), who, as mentioned above, distinguished between *continuate-words*, which denote something which cannot be counted and to which the idea of singular or plural does not apply, and *unit-words*, for which the distinction between singular and plural is natural. However, he was aware that "unit-words and continuate-words are not absolute groups but only represent different modes of apprehension", and that the transition of words between the groups is extremely common (Christophersen 1939: 27). Similarly, Dunbar (1991: 69) claims that the count-mass distinction represents two readings of a noun which differ in the way they make the noun interact with the knowledge of the world, and thus offer different perspectives on a given entity. He admits, nonetheless, that the distinction is not absolute, but relative to the choice of the determiner (Dunbar 1991: 73).

It is important to note that uncountability is unmarked in English. In the case of indefinite noun phrases, marking countability is syntagmatic in the singular. In other words, the countability of singular indefinite nouns is not their intrinsic property but a feature of their environment. More specifically, "in singular indefinite NP's, where the head-noun morphology is identical for countables and uncountables, there is obligatory inclusion of a denumerator" (Allan 1980: 565). The following sentence illustrates the point:

55. Small farmers in Kenya grow corn rather than *wheat*. Triticum aestivum ssp. vulgare is *a wheat* suitable for high altitudes (Allan 1980: 546).[15]

Marking the countability of definite noun phrases in the singular does not really take place; they are used when their reference is known because of the previous mention of the noun phrase or general knowledge, and knowing the reference of a noun phrase means knowing its countability. Thus, the countability of definite noun phrases is assumed to be known (Allan 1980: 565). The failure of the definite article to mark the

[15] The countability of singular indefinites can be marked by denumerators such as *a(n), each, every, either, several, many, both, (a) few* and the natural numbers from one to infinity. Of these, only *a(n)* and *one* (or unit denumerators) ensure an unambiguously countable NP environment (Allan 1980: 541-543, 566).

countability of definite singular noun phrases can be illustrated in the following way:

56. *The lightning* has frightened Caspar, and he's hiding under *the car*,

where no formal distinction between *the car* (countable) and *the lightning* (uncountable) is visible (Allan 1980: 543).

The role of articles in reclassification was discussed by Christophensen (1939). In his terms, a continuate-word without any article denotes the general idea about a continuous object, while the indefinite article preceding a unit-word brings out the element of unity already inherent in the word. However, in the case of "words belonging to both categories, *a* marks the addition of an element of unity" (Christophersen 1939: 74). The process of reclassification works also in the opposite direction; "a unit-word … needs the support of *a*. If *a* is not used, the word … is felt to be a continuate-word. As a matter of fact, by the omission of *a* a unit-word may be made an *ad hoc* continuate-word" (Christophersen 1939: 74). It is concluded that unit-words and continuate-words can be distinguished by "*a*-form and zero-form", respectively (Christophersen 1939: 74).

The zero article is chosen to give a noun phrase a continuate sense, provide a representation lacking in clear outline or limit and avoid exact or unit reference. When there are restrictions or limitations, by contrast, "as when the entity is seen with clear exterior form or is otherwise clarified from the vague, formless representation", the indefinite article is needed (Hewson 1972: 90). Thus, *a car* is a unit item, whereas *car* is a means of transport, a continuate (Hewson 1972: 127). In brief, the zero article gives the referent an interior or evokes qualitative associations. The indefinite article, by contrast, presupposes an exterior or a quantitative view on the referent (Hewson 1972: 106, 124).[16]

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[16] Master (1997: 216) notes that it is impossible to tell the difference between the non-use or omission of an article and the use of the zero article. The prevalent practice of treating the zero article as a full-fledged article is followed below. Interestingly, Chesterman (1991: 63) draws a distinction between the zero article and the null article. The zero article, pertinent to the present discussion, is the most indefinite of all articles, as it removes the boundaries which make a noun discrete. It occurs with singular countable nouns in alternation with the indefinite article and renders them uncountable. The indefinite article, in turn, is the opposite of the zero article inasmuch as it signifies, or even creates boundaries thereby making a formless entity discrete, and thus countable. The indefinite article also occurs with mass nouns in specialist contexts, where the boundary which it creates should be interpreted as *a kind* or

Obviously, it is not only the indefinite article that can be used with reclassifiable nouns. Chrisophersen (1939: 74-76) pays attention to the anaphoric function of the definite article, which, indicating a positive degree of familiarity, may precede a unit-word and a continuate-word. Yet, marking units lies beyond its scope. An illustration of the use of articles when familiarity is a factor is given in Figure 8, adapted from Christophersen (1939: 75).

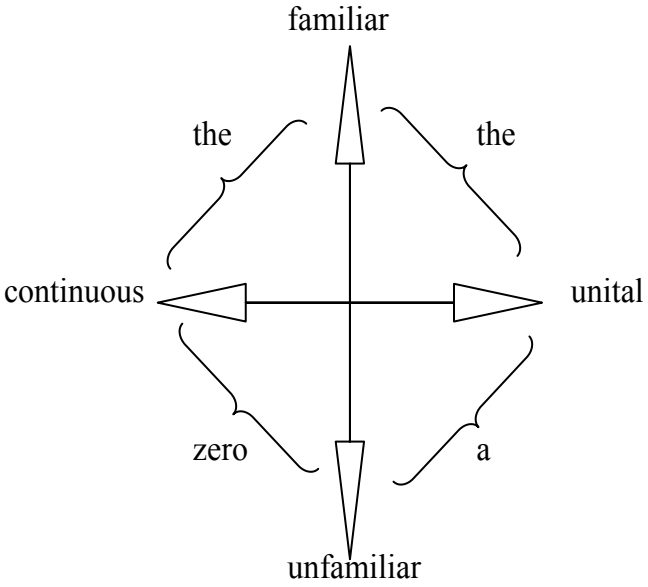

Figure 8. Articles versus familiarity and countability

Hewson (1972: 73) explains the difference in the role of the indefinite and definite articles by referring to and expanding on Guillaume's (1944: 99-105) idea that articles have kinetic values. The kinetic values of the indefinite article are directed towards the particular and singular, whereas

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type of (Master 1997: 222, 225). The null article, by contrast, is the most definite of all articles, as it accompanies nouns which are names of one-member sets, or precedes certain singular countable nouns in alternation with the definite article *the* (Master 1997: 223). In particular, singular countable common nouns follow the null article in the vocative, e.g., *Come along, boy!* Besides, it occurs in a set of fixed phrases, such as *go by train/be at (in) church, breakfast is ready* or *go to bed*. In such cases, the hearer is assumed to be familiar with the most common modes of transport or institutions, or noun referents are instantly recognizable in the immediate situation (Chesterman 1991: 65-66). Clearly, then, the null article falls beyond the scope of the present discussion.

those of the definite article – towards the general and universal. Thus, the indefinite article represents "a refining movement from the general to the particular, from the universal to the singular … It is a sign of presentation, of introduction, of refinement, of clarification, of approach to a more definite grasp of the notion" (Hewson 1972: 73). Yet, apart from introduction, there is another role which has to be fulfilled, that of recall, which may be seen as the opposite of introduction. Hewson (1972: 74) points out that the definite article is a manifestation of recall. It is only natural, then, that its kinetic values represent the opposite of the kinetic values which typify the indefinite article; they make it possible to "transcend the basic instance and thus get a more global, more general, more categorical, more abstract view … because it represents a movement … toward the universal, away from the singular and particular" (Hewson 1972: 75). It is this kinetic aspect that makes the indefinite article, rather than the definite one, a satisfactory individuation tool. The movements under discussion are represented schematically in Figure 9, adapted from Hewson (1972: 75).

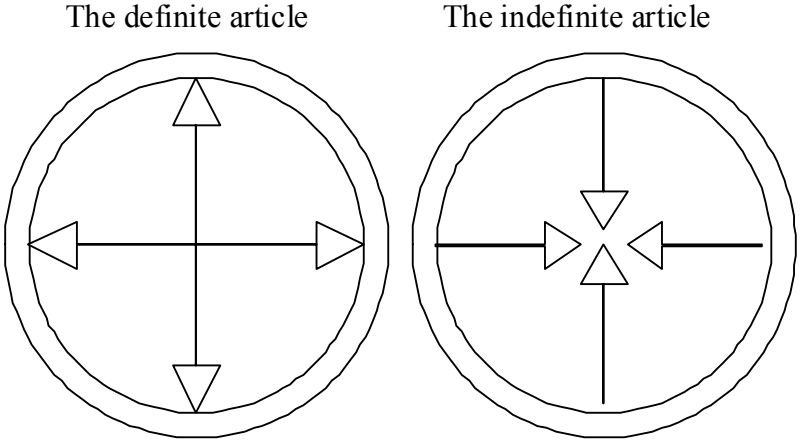

Figure 9. Articles and their kinetic values

If the periphery of a circle is seen as representing the universal or general, and the center – the singular and particular, the function performed by the indefinite article resembles a centripetal movement, while that of the definite article – a centrifugal movement (Hewson 1972: 75).

Even though the articles perform different functions, they are related inasmuch as the definite article, which can be used to indicate genericity, takes over where the indefinite article leaves off. In Hewson's (1972: 102) words, "[t]he movement of the definite article begins at the singular and particular attained at the term of the indefinite article … the movement continues with a more and more general representation until the limit of the article system is reached at a point where the representation is generic". These words suggest a linear representation, like the one shown in Figure 10, modeled on Hewson (1972: 72).

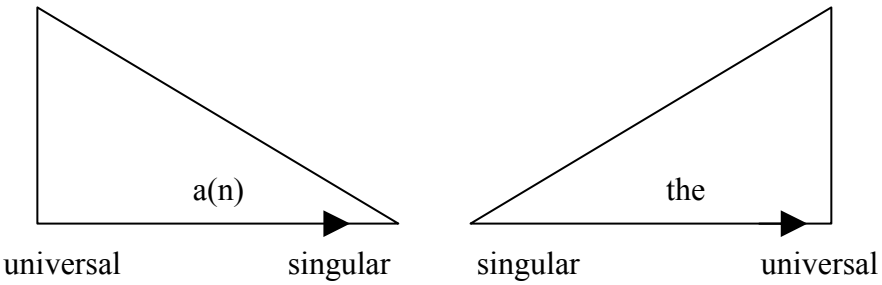

Figure 10. Articles and their kinetic values: A linear approach

All in all, the indefinite article, introductory in nature and related to the singular, manifests a shift from the general to the singular or particular. Conversely, the definite article, anaphoric and generic by nature, represents a movement from the already established and known to the general or universal (Hewson 1972: 72). Therefore, when it comes to reclassification, the function of the indefinite article is to introduce a particular instance, the definite one being used to refer to what has already been mentioned and to make general statements. Typically, then, it does not turn the general into the specific, but its kinetic values suggest that it functions the other way around. All these facts were borne in mind at the stage of designing the experiment and evaluating the subjects' translations.

2.1.2.3.1.1.2. Reclassification in Polish and the translation task

The distinction between countable and uncountable interpretations of noun reference is relevant to both English and Polish. Yet, in the latter language countable nouns in the singular are not preceded by the indefinite article, and Polish "has no equivalent overt marker for the semantic interpretations English associates with the presence or absence of this article" (Critz 1981: 199). Thus, the Polish sentence in 57, without any articles, corresponds to that in 55, cited above:

57. Drobni rolnicy w Kenii uprawiają kukurydzę zamiast *pszenicy*. Triticum aestivum ssp. vulgare jest *pszenicą* odpowiednią do uprawy na dużych wysokościach.

There is a consensus that Polish is an article-less language (Pisarkowa 1968: 12, Szwedek 1973c: 204, Miodunka 1974: 65, Fisiak et al. 1978: 70, Kryk 1987: 45, Bacz 1989: 81, Grzegorczykowa 1998: 32). It is even argued that the distinction between definiteness and indefiniteness not only lacks overt syntactic manifestation in Polish, but can sometimes be difficult to draw in the first place. In fact, in a sentence devoid of any context, a noun can be seen as both definite and indefinite, as in the following sentence cited by Fisiak et al. (1978: 70):

58. *Odwiedziłem staruszkę,*
I visited an/the old woman.

In English, by contrast, the article system prevents mistakes about the identity of referents.[17]

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[17] In Szwedek's (1976b: 13) view, however, such mistakes are relatively infrequent also in Polish, where definiteness and indefiniteness are communicated, the lack of articles notwithstanding. In his series of studies, Szwedek (1973a, 1973b, 1973c, 1973d, 1974, 1976a, 1976b, 1981) argues that in Polish, there are at least three ways of showing the definite/indefinite distinction: stress and intonation, word order and pronouns. First, sentence stress is normally placed on a lexical item in sentence-final position and falls on the new (non-coreferential) information in the sentence. Second, word order is not really free in Polish inasmuch as indefinite noun phrases are placed in sentence-final position as well. As for pronouns functioning as articles in Polish, Pisarkowa (1968: 12, 1969: 46, 58) claimed, shortly before Szwedek, that the definite/indefinite distinction can be expressed by the opposition between a given pronoun and the lack of the pronoun. The Polish demonstrative pronoun *ten [this]*, for example, can under some conditions func-

Topolińska (1984: 314-317) directly addresses the question of how reclassification is manifested syntactically in Polish. She notes that what is perceived as some shapeless substance and seems to lend itself to qualitative (and non-referential) interpretation only, e.g., *mleko, woda, cukier [milk, water, sugar],* may also function within the categories of more or less conventional units of measurement that allow quantitative (and referential) reading. Conventional units of measurement, explicit in the language, such as *litr wody [a liter of water]* or *kawałek mięsa [a piece of meat],* are not pertinent to the present discussion, in contrast to those less conventional ones, determined by a given situation, e.g.:

59. *To mleko (tzn. mleko w tym garnku) jest przypalone.*
This milk (i.e., the milk in this pot) is burnt.

Apart from demonstrative pronouns (here: *to*), the genitivus partitivus may evoke a quantitative interpretation when the referent is already a portion of some substance, e.g.,

60. *Daj mi mleko* $_{(ACC)}$ *vs. Daj mi mleka* $_{(GEN)}$
Give me the milk vs. Give me some milk.

Commenting on similar examples, Bacz (1989: 85) concludes that the accusative case indicates a whole, and the genitive case – a part. The indefinite pronoun *jakiś* may also bring about a change in qualitative identification, e.g.,

61. *To była jakaś nadzwyczajna woda.*
It was some extraordinary water.

---

tion as the definite article (Pisarkowa 1969: 51, Kryk 1987: 83). Miodunka (1974) presents an extensive analysis of the Polish pronouns *ten [this], taki [such], jakiś [any, some]* as well as their derivatives and discusses their article-like functions. He concludes that *ten* can indeed act as the definite article and *jakiś* can play the role of the indefinite one. *Taki*, by contrast, combines the functions of both *ten* and *jakiś* (Miodunka 1974: 65, 77, 83). Nonetheless, the pronouns cannot be seen as articles in the strict sense of the word, primarily because of their distribution and, as a rule, optionality, which stand in stark contrast to the regular obligatoriness of English articles in the corresponding contexts (Miodunka 1974: 87, Fisiak et al. 1978: 72). The issue resurfaces below.

In such contexts, the pronoun designates a kind or type, rather than any individualized quantity of the substance in question (Topolińska 1984: 316).

While some parallels may be drawn between the roles of certain pronouns or cases in Polish and articles in English, it should be remembered that the category of articles is nonexistent in the former language. Interpreting a noun as countable or uncountable hinges there on broad linguistic and non-linguistic contexts, and is not systematically determined by any syntactic or morphological markers (Critz 1981: 204). Thus, when searching corpora for English sentences with uncountable nouns reclassified as countable ones, special attention was paid to the context in which the nouns occurred. The sentences had to make it clear that the nouns denoted a specific kind, type, object or instance rather than some substance, mass, material or abstraction.[18] Such contexts were found for three English reclassifiable nouns used countably (*resin, veneer* and *hardship*). More specifically,

62. *pre-impregnated with a water-proof resin such as Epo-tek*
preimpregnowane nieprzemakalną żywicą taką jak Epo-tek

suggests a particular kind or type of resin, not resin as such. Similarly, the information that

63. *the base has a white veneer*
podstawa ma białą okleinę

implies a specific veneer on some object, and even the color of the veneer is given. Finally, the statement:

64. *the fee is a real hardship*
opłata jest prawdziwym ciężarem

points to a certain instance or form of hardship, and not hardship in general. It should also be noted that in 62-64, the English nouns under discus-

[18] This condition was of paramount importance because, as pointed out in section 2.1.2.2, the sentences harvested from corpora (and adapted accordingly) were translated into Polish and offered for translation in the test. Therefore, the context limited to one sentence had to evoke a countable interpretation of the selected nouns.

sion are preceded by the indefinite article and pre-modified.[19] As a matter of fact, uncountable nouns used as countable ones tend to be pre-modified by an adjective or post-modified. Svensson (1998: 168) explains that such modification along with the indefinite article impose some sort of bounding on the referent, hence the countable use. In his corpus study he noticed that the nouns which were pre-modified most frequently (in at least 80 percent of all occurrences) were typical uncountable nouns, which, when pre-modified, were preceded by the indefinite article and used countably. Quirk et al. (1985: 287) even claim that the greater the amount of modification, the greater the acceptability of the indefinite article. In this respect, the pre-modification of the selected nouns in 62-64 also suggests their countable use. Obviously, their (underlined) Polish equivalents are not accompanied by the indefinite article (Polish being an article-less language) or even pronouns which could perform its function. They do not occur in the genetivus partitivus, either. Therefore, the fact that in "unambiguously countable environments" (Allan 1980: 566) English nouns are preceded by the indefinite article but their Polish equivalents are not made it possible to treat *resin (jactancy), veneer (turpeth)* and *hardship (chinch)* as PL– items in the test. Needless to say, to successfully complete the relevant partial English translations, the indefinite article was indispensable.

The other three reclassifiable nouns, *mould, injustice* and *sediment,* were used uncountably. In the contexts employed in test, i.e.,

65. *to worry about rats or mould,*
    przejmować się szczurami czy pleśnią,
66. *injustice is to be remedied,*
    należy zaradzić niesprawiedliwości,
67. *the taps are immune to hard water and sediment,*
    zawory są odporne na twardą wodę i osad,

the English nouns were not modified. No specific type, form or kind of either mould or sediment, or an instance of injustice was suggested.[20] In

[19] Complete sentences are given in Table 25. In the case of *hardship*, the adjective *real* was added for the reasons explained in what follows.

[20] Since, as pointed out above, adjectival pre-modification is typical of reclassifiable nouns used countably, the adjective *economic* originally preceding *injustice* was removed to avoid any risk of misinterpretation. See Table 25 for details.

the absence of any further characterization or individuation, the nouns were uncountable. The lack of articles in Polish coincided with the zero article required for the English nouns in question, thereby making them PL+ nouns in the test.

Overall, the sentences employed in the translation task made it clear that a noun in a given context referred to some undifferentiated mass / abstract phenomenon or its specific type / instance. The supplied dictionary entries, in turn, showed that the headwords can be used both uncountably, with the zero article, when the former is the case, and countably, with the indefinite article, when the latter conditions obtain. The subjects were expected to grasp the difference and choose the option appropriate for a given context.[21]

2.1.2.3.1.2. Collective nouns

2.1.2.3.1.2.1. Collective nouns in English

As mentioned in section 1.4.1, singular collective nouns allow both singular and plural concord with the verb in English.[22] Quirk et al. (1985: 755) define concord as "the relationship between two grammatical units such that one of them displays a particular feature (*eg* plurality) that accords with a displayed (or semantically implicit) feature in the other". Concord of number between the subject and the verb, regarded as the most important type of concord in English, can be summarized in the form of a simple rule: a singular subject requires a singular verb, e.g.,

68. *My daughter watches television after supper*,

and a plural subject requires a plural verb, e.g.,

69. *My daughters watch television after supper* (Quirk et al. 1972: 359).

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[21] The composition of the dictionary entries provided in the test is discussed in section 2.1.2.4. See also Table 25.

[22] In what follows, the term *concord* will be used after Quirk et al. (1972, 1985) in preference to *agreement*. A detailed discussion of the distinction between the two is offered by Corbett (2003).

The fact that a grammatically singular collective noun may be notionally plural opens up the possibility of plural subject-verb concord. As pointed out in section 1.4.1, the choice between singular or plural verbs depends on whether the group denoted by a collective noun is considered as a single undivided body or a collection of individuals. The choice rests then on collective noun reference, which may be intensional, concerning the collection as a whole, or extensional, pertaining to the members of the collection. When the reference is intensional, the verb is in the singular, and when extensional – in the plural (Allan 1979, quoted in Svensson 1998: 138). In this regard, collective nouns introduce "competition between syntactic and semantic agreement" (Corbett 2003: 114). The latter is nothing but notional concord, or "agreement of verb with subject according to the notion of number rather than with the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that notion" (Quirk et al. 1985: 757). Thus, when a notionally plural but grammatically singular collective subject noun takes a plural verb, notional concord is obeyed (Quirk et al 1972: 360). To illustrate, in the sentence:

70. *The public are tired of demonstrations,*

emphasis is put on individual reactions, while in the sentence:

71. *The public consists of you and me,*

a single body is meant (Quirk et al. 1985: 758).

Plural subject-verb concord is said to be typical of British English. In American English, by contrast, singular collective nouns tend to be treated as singular. Besides, even in British English singular verbs seem to be preferred in writing and it is only in speech that plural verbs are more popular (Quirk et al. 1985: 758).[23]

Singular collective nouns which refer to people and take plural verbs antecede *who/whom/they/them/themselves/their*, and not *which/it/itself/its*, used when the concord with the verb is singular (Quirk et al. 1972: 361). The following examples illustrate the point:

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[23] Svensson (1998: 141) contests the view that plural concord is a feature of British English and claims that such a conclusion is drawn from limited data. For example, his corpus analysis reveals that while *team* and *family* are indeed used with plural verbs mainly in British English, *crew* and *audience* are frequently accompanied by plural verbs in American English as well.

72. The government, *who are* cutting *their* losses,
73. The government, *which is* cutting *its* losses,
74. *The government, *who is* cutting *their* losses (Quirk et al. 1972: 371).

Cygan (1974: 9) calls structures like that in 72 semi-plural; noun forms are singular, verb forms and pronouns – plural, relative pronouns – personal, collective noun reference – extensional. Examples 72 and 73 illustrate subject-pronoun concord between a collective noun in the singular and a central pronoun; the pronoun is in the plural when the collective noun is treated as a collection of separate individuals, and in the singular when the noun is viewed as a single undivided body (Quirk et al. 1972: 370).[24] Furthermore, although there is no number contrast in relative pronouns, their selection is affected by the perception of collective nouns as notionally plural or singular: the personal *who* refers to a group understood as a set of individuals, and the non-personal *which* – to a group seen as an indivisible unit. This, in turn, results from the fact that a relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender (Quirk et al. 1972: 369-370, 861). As Quirk et al. (1985: 314) explain, "the relative pronouns *who* and *which* are chosen according to the personal or animate (vs. impersonal or inanimate) status of the antecedent", which makes the choice a manifestation of gender-based pronoun selection. The role of collective nouns in shaping pronoun concord, which can go beyond clause boundaries, was important for the design of the test.[25]

2.1.2.3.1.2.2. Collective nouns in Polish and the translation task

As for the collective nouns in the test, the need for plural or singular subject-verb concord was signaled by relative and central pronouns in partial English translations. The Polish sentences offered for translation could be of no help in this respect since Polish collective nouns do not show variable concord with the verb. As Duczmal (1975: 166) explains, "[i]n Polish

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[24] The term *central pronoun* refers to personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns. Thus, in the third person singular the category in question includes *it, itself* and *its*, and in the third person plural – *they, them, themselves, theirs, their* (Quirk et al. 1972: 206-207).

[25] Compare the discussion in section 1.4.1. In the experiment, all collective nouns except *team (animals)* denoted people.

… in order to be followed by a plural verb, the subject must be definitely marked for plurality". The rule of notional concord, which decides plural subject-verb concord in the case of English collective nouns, does not apply to Polish. Thus, a Polish noun in the singular, even one which designates a collection of people or things, is followed by a singular verb.[26] In Polish, explicit conjunction and, with the exception of pluralia tantum, the morphological form of the plural number are markers of noun plurality (Topolińska 1984: 317). The following sentences can be cited after Jadacka (1995: 478) to illustrate the point:

77. *Nauczyciel dyktuje* (noun: singular – verb: singular)*, uczniowie piszą* (noun: plural – verb: plural)*,*
The teacher dictates, students write.
78. *Krystyna i Jerzy zajęli … pierwsze miejsce w konkursie* (nouns conjoined in the subject – verb: plural).
Krystyna and Jerzy took … first place in the competition.[27]

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[26] It should be mentioned, however, that in Polish there are plural nouns which, morphologically, look like singular ones, e.g., *wujostwo* (aunt and uncle), *generałostwo* (general and his wife), *państwo* (Mr and Mrs), and seem to resemble regular neuter nouns (Alexander 2002: 17). In fact, however, they represent masculine personal pluralia tantum and in the nominative require verbs in the plural, e.g.:

75. *Wujostwo czytali ksiażkę* (noun: plural – verb: plural)
[Uncle and aunt were reading a book],

versus the ungrammatical

76. **Wujostwo czytało książkę* (noun: plural – verb: singular)
[*Uncle and aunt was reading a book*] (Saloni – Świdziński 1998: 177, 181).

Interestingly, Topolińska (1984: 319) considers pluralia tantum forms of the so called elliptic plural, that is forms referring to collections of people derived from the name of one personal referent, which denote collections in view of the relationships between the members of the group and the person in question. It is worth noting that the Polish noun *szefostwo (management)*, used in the test, does not belong to the category in question irrespective of some surface morphological similarity to *wujostwo* or *państwo*. In the relevant sense, *szefostwo* (i.e., the group of people responsible for controlling and organizing a company) is an uncountable noun (ISJP: *szefostwo2*). Pluralia tantum are not taken into consideration in the present study.

[27] Yet, there are constructions where the verb is in the singular despite the plurality of the subject. This is for example the case when the subject is in the genitive, e.g.,

79. *Rodziców* (plural, GEN) *nie bylo* (third person singular neuter)
[There were no parents],

or when the subject is a noun of foreign origin whose ending does not fit into any declension (Klemensiewicz 1961: 125). Also, if some phrases referring to quantities or

Klemensiewicz (1961: 125) observes that in Polish, the grammatical form of number performs a syntactic function. The syntactic function is reflected, among others, in the form of the verb, which, as a rule, agrees in number with the subject. In other words, it is the grammatical properties of the subject that decide the number of the verb predicate in a sentence; the principles of formal concord, not notional concord, require the verb to be in the same number as the subject (Jadacka 1995: 478). Duczmal (1975: 166) uses the following sentences to illustrate the divergency between notional concord, possible in the case of English collective nouns, and the syntactic function of the grammatical form of number in Polish:

80. *Rząd właśnie postanowił rozwiązać problem* (noun: singular – verb: singular),
The government have just decided to solve the problem (noun: singular – verb: plural).
81. *Nasz Komitet Planowania rozpatrzył pańską prośbę* (noun: singular – verb: singular),
Our Planning Committee have considered your request (noun: singular – verb: plural).

By contrast, it is impossible to say in Polish:

82. **Rząd właśnie postanowili rozwiązać problem* (noun: singular – verb: plural),
83. **Nasz Komitet Planowania rozpatrzyli pańską prośbę* (noun: singular – verb: plural).

Clearly, the semantic aspect of subject-verb concord, or "agreement in accordance with meaning" (Chelaru-Ionită – Bantaş 1981: 225), which is decisive in the case of collective nouns in English, does not apply to Polish.

In the Polish sentences offered for translation, the underlined Polish equivalents of the selected English collective nouns were either countables used in the singular *(obsada (cast), zaprzęg (team – animals), ekipa*

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numerals 5-21, 25-31, 35-41 and so on precede the subject, the verb always appears in the third person singular neuter irrespective of the number represented by the numeral or the grammatical gender of the subject (Dziwirek 1990: 147). For more on such constructions, which are not considered in the present study, see Sienicki (1973), Dziwirek (1990) or Alexander (2002).

(team – people), zgraja (crew)), or uncountables *(możnowładztwo (nobility), szefostwo (management))*, which, normally, are not used in the plural at all. Thus, all of them required singular subject-verb concord. This was obviously the case in the sentences where a collective noun was the subject of the main clause *((obsada (cast), zaprzęg (team – animals))*, i.e.,

84. *Stara obsada, która go wspierała,* ***jest*** *teraz co najmniej w średnim wieku, ale efekty jej pracy wciąż trwają.*
The old cast, who supported him, ***are*** *now at least middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.*
85. *Zaprzęg konny, który ugrzązł w błocie,* ***był*** *bardzo powolny i ociężały, jak wskazują jego wyniki.*
The horse team which stuck in the mud ***was*** *very slow and sluggish, as its results show.*

None of the other collective nouns *(ekipa (team – people), możnowładztwo (nobility), zgraja (crew), szefostwo (management))* was the subject of the main clause, though. Each of them was only the subject of a relative clause, where it was replaced by the relative pronoun *który*, inflected accordingly, and co-referential with the non-subject collective noun in the main clause, e.g.,

86. *Muszą pracować jak ekipa, która* ***jest*** *tak mocna jak jej najsłabszy członek.*
They must work as a team which ***is*** *as strong as its weakest member.*
87. *Udaje mu się jednoczyć złodziejską zgrają, która często się* ***kłóci****.*
He manages to unite the thievish crew who often ***fight*** *amongst themselves.*[28]

Naturally, the noun phrase on which the relative one expands can be the subject or the object, or perform any other syntactic function in the main clause. Importantly, inflected relative pronouns (e.g., *który, kto* or *co*) inherit gender and number from the co-referential noun phrase in the main clause, whereas their case is determined by the valency of the verb in the subordinate clause (Grzegorczykowa 1998: 116, 122). To illustrate this

[28] The sentences with *możnowładztwo (nobility)* and *szefostwo (management)* are given in Table 25.

point, the sentences cited by Grzegorczykowa (1998: 93) will be used, with information on number additionally marked in lower index. Thus,

88. *Jan spotkał kolegę* $_{(singular)}$*, który* $_{(singular)}$ *wrócił* $_{(singular)}$ *z Paryża*
[John met a friend $_{(singular)}$ *who* $_{(singular)}$ *had returned* $_{(singular)}$ *from Paris]*

can be seen as a combination of two sentences:

89. *Jan spotkał kolegę* $_{(singular)}$
[John met a friend $_{(singular)}$*]*
90. *Kolega*$_{(singular)}$ *wrócił* $_{(singular)}$ *z Paryża*
[The friend $_{(singular)}$ *had returned* $_{(singular)}$ *from Paris],*

the latter of which (90) is as if added or joined to the former (89), the main clause.[29] Clearly, the subject in 90 *(kolega [the friend])* has the same number (singular) as the noun phrase in 89 with which it is co-referential *(kolegę [a friend])*. The same number is imposed on the relative pronoun *który [who]*, which in 88 replaces the subject of the subordinate clause *(kolega [the friend])*. The verb in the relative clause *(wrócił [returned])* needs the same number. In this regard, it is possible to talk about subject-verb concord in number also in the case of relative clauses, but it should be remembered that it is the noun phrase in the main clause to which the relative clause refers that dictates the concord.

As already mentioned, *ekipa (team – people), możnowładztwo (nobility), zgraja (crew), szefostwo (management)* were either countable nouns used in the singular or uncountable ones. Thus, the Polish relative pronouns co-referential with them were always in the singular, and so were the verbs in the relative clauses introduced by the pronouns. In the partial English translations which accompanied the Polish sentences with these nouns, verbs were missing from the relative clauses.[30] The English collective nouns to which the relative clauses referred denoted either sets of

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[29] Muskat-Tabakowska (1979: 127) admits that the origin of relative clauses in English, both restrictive and non-restrictive, is a moot point, but inclines to the view that "conjunction should be seen as their common underlying representation". She also stresses the fact that relative clauses in Polish and English show fundamental formal and functional similarities.

[30] In the sentences with *obsada (cast)* – 84 and *zaprzęg (team – animals)* – 85, by contrast, the missing verbs belong to the main clauses.

individuals (e.g. 87) or collections as such (e.g. 86), as evidenced by subject-pronoun concord and the relative pronouns *who* and *which*, respectively. Verb number had to be adjusted accordingly, like in the following sentences adapted from Quirk et al. (1972: 861):

91. People admire the committee *who* ***were*** responsible for *their* decision,
92. People admire the group *which* ***was*** responsible for *its* decision.

In short then, even though in four cases in the test, verbs in the singular or in the plural had to be used in relative clauses, rather than main ones, it was still collective nouns that ultimately determined the choice.

Overall, three collective nouns *(cast (brogan), crew (chevet), management (fanion))* were notionally plural and required verbs in the plural to correctly complete the partial translations, in which the personal relative pronoun *who* and plural central pronouns were already given. In view of the fact that plural concord is impossible with their Polish equivalents *(obsada, zgraja*, *szefostwo)*, the English items were PL– nouns in the test. The other three English collective nouns *(team – people (nautch), nobility (hachure), team – animals (postil))* were notionally singular, required verbs in the singular in the partial English translations, which featured the non-personal relative pronoun *which* as well as singular central pronouns. Since the Polish equivalents underlined in the sentences to be translated *(ekipa, możnowładztwo, zaprzęg)* also showed singular concord with the verb, the English items were PL+ nouns in the experiment. It should also be pointed out that proper verb forms had to be used in relative clauses in the case of two PL– nouns *(crew (chevet)*, *management (fanion))* and two PL+ nouns *(team – people (nautch), nobility (hachure))*.

The question which might suggest itself at this point is whether the consultation of the entries for collective nouns was really necessary. Arguably, it was possible to infer the need for a singular or plural verb from the pronouns co-referential with a collective noun and given in the supplied partial translations. Nonetheless, a few things have to be borne in mind. First of all, intermediate learners might not yet be advanced enough to realize, or simply remember, that subject-pronoun concord suggests subject-verb concord. Besides, in the test, sentences with collective nouns were interspersed among those with reclassifiable nouns, and their ar-

rangement was randomized.[31] This made the subjects less likely to notice that only in some cases pronouns could be of help. Moreover, they were explicitly instructed to consult dictionary entries in order to complete the translation task. Naturally, it can be argued that they could first figure out the response from the partial English translation and only then mark the part of the collective noun entry which confirmed their predictions. Yet, this is not an impossible use of monolingual learners' dictionaries. Verifying predictions about foreign words is one of the purposes that they actually serve (Nesi – Haill 2002: 295). However, if it had indeed been the case, then in noun tests the proportions of correct translations supported relevant syntactic information in the supplied entries would have been high, and probably much higher than in verb tests, where there were no similar hints. Section 3.1.2 reveals that, as a matter of fact, the reverse was true; in verb tests, the proportions in question exceeded those in noun tests in the case of both intermediate and advanced subjects. Besides, in reality, subject-verb concord with singular collective nouns proved to be no less difficult for the participants than the use of the indefinite article and the zero article to signal the count-mass distinction.[32]

Admittedly, in the case of collective nouns, the supplied translations might seem too helpful for the subjects, but a feasible alternative solution was difficult to find. One option was to exclude the central pronouns coreferential with the target nouns and leave only the two relative pronouns (*who* and *which*) as a clue to concord. Yet, the personal and non-personal relative pronouns could be informative enough for those who already know their role in the context of collective nouns and subject-verb concord, but not for those who fail to associate them with plural and singular subject-verb concord, respectively. Making such an association on the spot must be in fact quite difficult for the latter group of dictionary users, since the relative pronouns, which do not reveal number contrast, do not presuppose either singular or plural subject-verb concord when they introduce relative clauses describing non-collective nouns. Moreover, in the entries for the collective nouns in the test, they did not reflect subject-verb concord of number, either, because they do not perform this function in the dictionaries on which the entries were modeled. Thus, the relative pronouns could not be the only guide to concord in the task.

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[31] See section 2.1.2.2.

[32] Details are given in Dziemianko (2008).

Another possibility was to employ sentences without relative pronouns, but featuring central pronouns co-referential with collective nouns to suggest singular or plural subject-verb concord in the translation task. However, plural central pronouns alone may be an unreliable indicator of such concord. As pointed out by Quirk et al. (1985: 759), in both British and American English they can refer to singular collective nouns accompanied by verbs in the singular, e.g.,

93. The committee *has* not yet decided how *they* should react to Governor's letter.

Although plural verbs are then preferred to singular ones even in American English (Quirk et al. 1972: 360-361), sentences like 93 are not grammatically incorrect. Yet, a singular verb is impossible when a plural central pronoun and the relative *who* co-referential with a collective noun in the singular appear together in one sentence, as in 74 above, repeated here for convenience:

74'. *The government, *who is* cutting *their* losses (Quirk et al. 1972: 371).

Thus, relative and central pronouns together, rather than one pronoun category at a time, could be an accurate indicator of subject-verb concord of number.

Another solution considered at the stage of designing the study was to focus only on notional concord, that is formulate the task so that the perception of number of a collective noun referent would suggest either singular or plural concord of the verb with the noun. Nonetheless, leaving everything to the subjects' interpretation and the possibly vague impression of number that they could get was burdened with too much risk. For one thing, some students, especially intermediate ones, could be unaware of the fact that notional concord can be decisive in the case of English collective nouns. For another, as pointed out above, grammatical consequences of notional concord can be different for speakers of British and American English. In British English, collective nouns which are notionally plural but grammatically singular obey notional concord and take plural verbs. In American English, they rather tend to go with singular verbs. Thus, without any further constraints, it might be difficult to evaluate the subjects' responses, since, in actual fact, the range of acceptable

correct answers would be too broad – both singular and plural concord could qualify as correct ones. Besides, accepting notional concord as the guiding principle in the test would render any codes in learners' dictionaries virtually useless, because notional concord and its influence on grammatical concord are not reflected in syntactic codes. Therefore, focusing on notional concord would preclude meeting the principal purpose of the study. It seems that such concord is often of hardly any concern to lexicographers, since in pedagogical dictionaries there are numerous examples in entries for collective nouns where the slash separates a verb in the singular from the same verb in the plural, which obviously rules out any clear illustration of notional concord, e.g.,

94. *The Government has / have been considering further tax cuts* (OALDCE7, *government1*),
95. *The jury has / have returned a verdict of guilty* (OALDCE7, *jury1*).

In fact, it may not be obvious even to native speakers of English whether intensional or extensional reference of a collective noun is more relevant to a given situation. Svensson (1998: 140) concludes from corpus data that in many contexts both singular and plural verbs accompany singular collective nouns, since groups quite often lend themselves to both intensional and extensional interpretations. Thus, leaving the participants of the study to judge which interpretation is (more) appropriate in a given case and decide on verb number solely on the basis of notional concord would make evaluation difficult and virtually preclude getting any insight into dictionary use. In the light of all these factors and considerations, the design of the translation task finally employed in the test was considered the most suitable alternative under the circumstances.

2.1.2.3.2. Verbs

2.1.2.3.2.1. PL– verbs

PL– verbs, which had to be used in patterns different from those in which their underlined Polish equivalents were employed in the sentences offered for translation, are discussed in the next two sections. First, the syntax of *petition (osculate), presume (roup)* and *pronounce (transude)*, the PL– verbs which had to be followed by the infinitive, is juxtaposed with

that of *wnieść, przypuszczać, uznać*, respectively. Then, the grammatical properties of the PL– verbs which required a continuous verb form in the complementation pattern *(involve (loricate), envisage (brail), admit (aurify))* are contrasted with those of their Polish equivalents (*wymagać, przewidywać, przyznać*, respectively).

2.1.2.3.2.1.1. PL– verbs followed by the infinitive

2.1.2.3.2.1.1.1. *Petition (wnieść)*

In the translation task, the following sentences with *wnieść* and *petition (osculate)* were used:

96. *Mieszkańcy wsi wnoszą, aby władze lokalne zapewniły lepsze usługi autobusowe.*
Villagers petition the local authority to provide better bus services.

The code from ISJP for *wnieść*, [CZ DK-NDK ZWYKLE NDK [o-B/ABY]], suggests that the verb can be followed by a subordinate clause introduced by *aby, żeby, by, ażeby*.[33] Nonetheless, the conjunctions do not have to be followed by a finite clause; they can take an infinitive as well. Klemensiewicz (1961: 92) explains that the adverbial clause of purpose following the conjunctions *by, aby, żeby, ażeby* or *iżby* can take the form of an infinitive in two cases. First, the subject of the main clause is the same as the performer of the action expressed by the verb in the subordinate clause, e.g.,

97. *Poszedłem do miasta, aby się spotkać ze znajomymi,*
I went into town to meet friends,

i.e., *I* went into town, *I* wanted to meet my friends. Second, the intended activity, specified by the verb in the subordinate clause, is expressed impersonally; it is not known, clear, important or relevant who is to perform it, e.g.,

[33] The detailed information on the meaning of symbols in ISJP codes supplied in Table 26 is not repeated below.

98. *By rozeznać się w tym zagadnieniu, trzeba zebrać bogaty materiał.*
To be well clued-in about this issue, it is necessary to collect rich material.

However, when the subject of the main clause is different from the subject of the subordinate clause of purpose, the infinitive is impossible; a clause in the past tense must follow the aforementioned conjunctions (Klemensiewicz 1961: 92), e.g.,

99. *Matka kupiła ci kożuch, abyś nie marzł$_{[past]}$ w czasie silnych mrozów* (ISJP, *aby1*).
Mother has bought you a sheepskin coat so that you do not freeze when it is really frosty.

i.e., *you* (do not) freeze, but *mother* has bought you the coat.[34]

The syntactic rules summarized above were taken into consideration when planning the translation task with *petition*. It had to be borne in mind that when *wnieść* is followed by an infinitive after *aby*, its pattern corresponds to the English pattern *petition + to infinitive*, e.g.,

102. a. *Mieszkańcy wsi wnoszą, aby zapewnić lepsze usługi autobusowe.*
b. *Villagers petition to provide better bus services.*

Yet, *wnieść* cannot function in a construction parallel to *petition + noun + to infinitive*,

103. a. **Mieszkańcy wsi wnoszą, aby władze lokalne zapewnić lepsze usługi autobusowe*.

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[34] Sentence 99 shows that if the subject of the subordinate clause is a pronoun, here *ty (you$_{sing}$)*, it has to be deleted in Polish, but the markers of gender, person and number are retained by the verb in the subordinate clause and the complementizer, e.g., *aby -m, -ś, -śmy, -ście* (Morel 1973: 90). Interestingly, Staszewski (1976: 197) points out that even when the subject identity condition is satisfied, the infinitive is impossible in Polish if the subject is instrumental, and not agentive, e.g.,

100. *Motor jest (po to), żeby napędzał$_{(past)}$ wał* (instrumental).
The motor is to drive the shaft.

101. *Motor jest (po to), żeby (nim) napędzać$_{(infinitive)}$ wał* (implied agent).
The motor is to drive the shaft (with it).

b. *Villagers petition the local authority to provide better bus services.*

When the subject of the subordinate clause *(władze lokalne)* is relevant and specified, and different from the main clause subject *(mieszkańcy wsi)*, a correct Polish sentence should contain a verb in the past tense in the subordinate clause, as shown in 96 above. Thus, the structure in *petiton + noun + to infinitive* could be employed in the translation task, since it was impossible for *wnieść*, but possible for *petition*, a PL– verb in the test. When reading the Polish sentence offered for translation (96), the participants of the study could not fail to realize that the subordinate clause introduced by *aby* has a subject different from the one of the main clause, and that it had to be rendered in translation. The pattern *petiton + noun + to infinitive* was the only one in the supplied entry which could be used to convey the meaning of the Polish sentence. Also, neither the construction in the Polish sentence nor any other pattern of *wnieść* in the chosen sense, as shown in the aforementioned ISJP code, could be a source of positive transfer in the translation task.

2.1.2.3.2.1.1.2. *Presume (przypuszczać), pronounce (uznać)*

Presume (roup) and *pronounce (transude)* are discussed together because in the test they both had to be used in the pattern *verb + noun + to infinitive*, and their Polish equivalents, *przypuszczać* and *uznać*, respectively, took a subordinate clause introduced by *że*, i.e.,

104. *Amerykański wywiad posiadał rysunki dziesięciu utwardzonych schronów i przypuszczał, że są one bunkrami.*
American intelligence possessed drawings of ten hardened shelters and presumed them to be bunkers.
105. *Jeśli on to widzi, uznaję, że ma on skrzywioną wyobraźnię.*
If he sees this, I pronounce him to have a disordered imagination.

For *uznać*, this is the only pattern shown in the code in ISJP: [CZ DK-NDK [ŻE]]. In the case of *przypuszczać*, an adverbial and a clause introduced by a question word are also possible ([CZ DK-NDK ZWYKLE NDK [ŻE/PYT/OK]]). Nonetheless, ISJP does not allow an infinitive in

the complementation pattern of either Polish verb.[35] Thus, the syntax of the Polish verbs could not suggest the correct way of completing the relevant partial translations in the test.

Notwithstanding, it is useful to refer to Lewandowska's (1976: 223) analysis of parallels between verb patterns in English and Polish. In the category of English complex transitives which, like *presume* and *pronounce*, function in the surface pattern *verb + noun + to infinitive*, the verbs *expect, believe* or *imagine* are discussed. The author observes that in the pattern in question, they are typically translated into Polish with the help of finite *że*-clauses, e.g.,

107. *I expected him to come,*
Oczekiwałam, że przyjdzie,
108. *I believe him to be an honest man,*
Wierzę, że jest uczciwym człowiekiem,
109. *He imagines himself to be a linguist,*
Wyobraża sobie, że jest językoznawcą (Lewandowska 1976: 223-224).

Lipińska (1973: 39-40) accounts for such differences between the English and Polish structures within the framework of transformational generative grammar. She claims that sentences like:

110. *She believed him to win*,

have the following sentence pattern:

SP1:	subject	verb	object	verbal complement
	NP1	V1	NP2	Comp+V2

Corresponding Polish sentences, such as:

111. *Ona wierzyła, że on zwycięży*,

have the same deep structure, but the sentence pattern derived from it is different, i.e.:

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[35] *Że* in Polish, like *that* in English, is mutually exclusive with the infinitive, hence the ungrammaticality of:
106. **Wiem, że Jan przyjść,*
**I know that John to come* (Morel 1973: 88).

SP2:	subject1	verb1	comp	subject2	verb2
	NP1	V1	Comp	NP2	V2

The difference between the two sentence patterns consists in the fact that the subject-verb relation between NP2 and V2 cannot exist in the English surface structure, but it must be retained in the Polish one. Lipińska (1973: 39) notes that this concerns the problem of "shifting NP2 in the derivation of the English sentences from the domination of the lower S [sentence] under the domination of VP of the higher S [sentence]". To illustrate the derivation, it is necessary to refer to the deep structure shown in Figure 11.

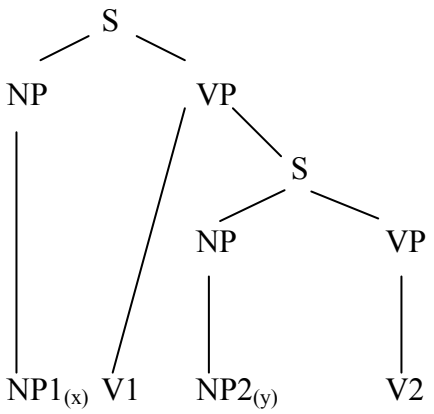

Figure 11. Deep structure

To arrive at SP1 in English, two transformations are necessary. First, the so called sentence brackets erasure transformation must take place to remove the lower S node together with all the nodes dominated by it. As a result, every node that was previously dominated by the S node becomes dominated by the VP node. Second, the complementizer1 introduction transformation, which applies when two verbs are dominated by the same VP node, inserts Comp1 (e.g., *to*) in front of the second verb. In effect, SP1 is achieved (Lipińska 1973: 41-42). The effect of these two transformations is shown in Figure 12.

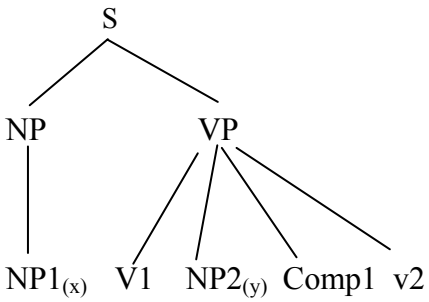

Figure 12. Sentence brackets erasure and Comp1 insertion in English

In Polish, by contrast, sentence brackets erasure cannot apply and, consequently, the deep structure shown above cannot yield SP1. For the transformation to apply in Polish, NP2 must be co-referential with NP1, and VP1 must allow NP2 to be deleted. Such a deletion of NP2 co-referential with NP1, or the identity erasure transformation, is a condition sine qua non for the application of sentence brackets erasure. When the latter is blocked (typically by the lack of co-reference between NP1 and NP2, as is the case in Figure 11), the complementizer2 introduction transformation applies obligatorily; Comp2 (e.g., *that*) is inserted under the VP node in front of the embedded S (Lipińska 1973: 41-42). As a result, SP2 is created, as shown in Figure 13.

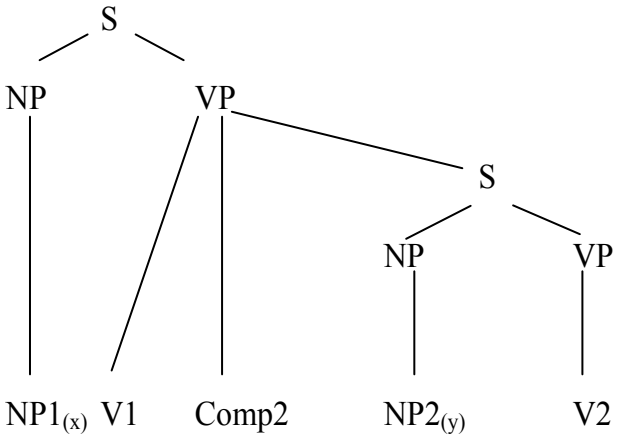

Figure 13. Comp2 insertion in Polish

This explains why verbs like *believe, expect, imagine* as well as *presume* and *pronounce* can occur in the pattern where their objects are followed by *to*-infinitive complementation, and why the same construction is impossible for their Polish equivalents.

2.1.2.3.2.1.2. PL– verbs followed by *-ing*

2.1.2.3.2.1.2.1. *Involve (wymagać), envisage (przewidywać)*

In the test, the complementizer *aby* occurs in the Polish sentence with *wymagać*:

112. *Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagałoby od kierowców, aby kupowali zdrapki.*
Introducing fees for car parking would involve drivers buying scratch cards.

In the Polish sentence, a past verb must be used in the subordinate clause following *aby*, since the subject of the subordinate clause *oni (they)*, co-referential with *kierowcy (drivers)*, even though omitted, is different from the subject of the main clause *wprowadzenie opłat (introducing fees*).[36] In contrast to its English equivalent *(involve)*, *wymagać* cannot function in the pattern *verb* + *noun*+ - *ing*, i.e.,

113. **Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagaloby kierowców* $_{(GEN)}$ *kupowania zdrapek*$_{(GEN)}$.

Likewise, the verb *przewidywać* was used in the test in the following sentence:

114. *Brytyjczycy przewidują, że wojska ONZ zastąpią oddziały irackie na tym terenie.*
The British envisage UN troops replacing Iraqi forces in the area.

Yet, *przewidywać,* unlike its English equivalent *envisage*, cannot be used in the pattern *verb* + *noun*+ - *ing*, either, i.e.,

115. **Brytyjczycy przewidują [wojsk ONZ]*$_{(GEN)}$ *zastąpienie [oddziałów irackich]*$_{(GEN)}$.

---

[36] Compare the discussion concerning *petition (wnieść)* in section 2.1.2.3.2.1.1.1.

It is important to note that the unacceptable complement structures of both *wymagać* (113) and *przewidzieć* (115) include the nominalized predicates *kupowanie [buying]* and *zastąpienie [replacing]*, respectively. Both of them are names of actions derived from verbs, and are called *action nominals* in what follows (Lewandowska 1974: 167).[37] The Polish structures with the action nominals, repeated for the sake of convenience in 113' and 115', might seem to correspond to the verbal constructions in 116 and 117, respectively:

116. *kierowcy*$_{(NOM)}$ *kupują zdrapki*$_{(ACC)}$
drivers buy scratch cards
113'. **kierowców* $_{(GEN)}$ *kupowania zdrapek*$_{(GEN)}$
drivers buying scratch cards
117. *[wojska ONZ]*$_{(NOM)}$ *zastępują [oddziały irackie]*$_{(ACC)}$
UN troops replace Iraqi forces
115'. **[wojsk ONZ]*$_{(GEN)}$ *zastąpienie [oddziałów irackich]*$_{(GEN)}$
UN troops replacing Iraqi forces.

However, while Polish action nominals inherit some syntactic requirements of the verbs from which they are derived, they also have their own valency constraints (Saloni – Świdziński 1998: 185, 256). In contrast to their source verbs, action nominals do not combine with nouns in the nominative. The argument which in the verbal construction is in the nominative, in the corresponding nominalization can take the form of the genitive (Topolińska 1984: 365, Saloni – Świdziński 1998: 185). Also, if the verb takes a noun phrase in the accusative as its object, the corresponding nominal derivative can be followed by a noun phrase in the genitive. However, to accommodate the subject of the verbal construction, some verbal nouns require the pronoun *przez* followed by a (pro)noun in

[37] Action nominals include verbal substantives, which end in *-enie, -anie, -cie*, e.g., *robienie, czytanie, mycie*, and deverbal substantives, e.g., *propozycja* (Lewandowska 1974: 167). The distinction is discussed at length by Puzynina (1969: 28-70). Suffice it to say that verbal substantives, a categorial type, are morphologically more uniform and can be derived from almost all Polish verbs. Deverbal substantives, by contrast, are non-categorial (formally and semantically), accept a number of derivational endings and can be derived from a much smaller number of verbs. Interestingly, if a verb (e.g., *grać*) has verbal and deverbal nominals (*granie* and *gra*, respectively), the former is typically used to indicate the fact that the action was performed, while the latter – to describe how it was performed (Lewandowska 1974: 169).

the accusative (Saloni – Świdziński 1998: 185). Points 118 and 119 show correct nominalizations derived from the verbal structures in 116 and 117, respectively, in compliance with the above rules:

118. *kupowanie [zdrapek]*$_{(GEN)}$ *przez*$_{(PRON)}$ *[kierowców]*$_{(ACC)}$
buying scratch cards by drivers
119. *zastąpienie [sił irackich]*$_{(GEN)}$ *przez*$_{(PRON)}$ *[wojska ONZ]*$_{(ACC)}$
replacing Iraqi forces by UN troops.

Importantly, Saloni and Świdziński (1998: 185) point out that constructions with nouns derived from verbs which would involve two genitives subordinate to the same noun, as is the case in 113' and 115', are virtually unacceptable in Polish, e.g.,

120. *[chłopiec]*$_{(NOM)}$ *prosi o [pomoc]*$_{(ACC)}$
a boy is asking for help
121. **[chłopca]*$_{(GEN)}$ *prośba [pomocy]*$_{(GEN)}$
a boy's request for help.[38]

Indeed, 113', 115' and 121 are unacceptable because of *kierowców*$_{(GEN)}$, *wojsk ONZ*$_{(GEN)}$ and *chłopca*$_{(GEN)}$, respectively, which precede the action nominals. Each of these is a genitivus subiecti, that is a noun phrase in the genitive, which in the corresponding verbal construction occurs in the nominative and performs the function of the subject, i.e., *kierowcy*$_{(NOM)}$ (116), *wojska ONZ*$_{(NOM)}$ (117) and *chłopiec*$_{(NOM)}$ (120). In the unacceptable constructions cited above, each genitivus subiecti co-occurs with a genitivus obiecti, i.e., *zdrapek*$_{(GEN)}$, *oddziałów irackich*$_{(GEN)}$ and *pomocy*$_{(GEN)}$, respectively. These, in turn, correspond to the objects in the accusative in the verbal constructions in 116, 117 and 120, i.e., *zdrapki*$_{(ACC)}$, *oddziały irackie*$_{(ACC)}$ and *pomoc*$_{(ACC)}$. In this way, the principle that two adnominal genitives cannot occur with an action nominal is violated.

Topolińska (1984: 366) explains that when in a construction with an action nominal there is already a genitivus obiecti, the argument which in the corresponding verbal pattern was in the nominative almost without exception takes the accusative case, follows the genitivus obiecti and the

[38] In a similar vein, Rappaport (2000: 19, 20) argues for "the impossibility of two adnominal genitives with process nominals".

preposition *przez*, like in 118 and 119. This is also why the verbal construction:

122. *Piotr*$_{(NOM)}$ *krytykuje Jana* $_{(ACC)}$
Piotr criticizes Jan

corresponds to the following structure with an action nominal:

123. *krytyka*$_{(ACTION\ NOMINAL)}$ *Jana*$_{(GEN.\ OBIECTI)}$ *przez*$_{(PREP)}$ *Piotra*$_{(ACC)}$
[criticism$_{(ACTION\ NOMINAL)}$ Jan$_{(GEN.\ OBIECTI)}$ by$_{(PREP)}$ Piotr$_{(ACC)}$],

rather than one where a genitivus subiecti precedes the nominalized predicate:

124. **Piotra*$_{(GEN.\ SUBIECTI)}$ *krytyka*$_{(ACTION\ NOMINAL)}$ *Jana*$_{(GEN.\ OBIECTI)}$
[Piotr$_{(GEN.\ SUBIECTI)}$ criticism $_{(ACTION\ NOMINAL)}$ Jan $_{(GEN.\ OBIECTI)}$].[39]

Overall, the above discussion shows that the constructions with action nominals in 113 and 115, although corresponding to the target pattern to be used in translation, cannot be accepted in Polish because in each of them there is a genitivus subiecti alongside a genitivus obiecti. Thus, Polish syntax could not be a source of positive transfer in the case of *involve (loricate)* and *envisage (brail)*.

2.1.2.3.2.1.2.2. *Admit (przyznać)*

In the sentence offered for translation, *przyznać* is followed by a finite *że*-clause:

126. *Po ceremonii przyznał, że czuje się trochę zdenerwowany.*
After the ceremony, he admitted feeling a little nervous.

The syntactic code from ISJP, [CZ DK [(C) + (ŻE)]], reveals that apart from a clause introduced by *że*, the Polish verb in the selected sense can be followed by a noun phrase in the dative, or both such a noun phrase

[39] Yet, when in a nominalized construction there are arguments in the dative, instrumental or any other case (but then preceded by a preposition), the genitivus subiecti can, and sometimes must, be placed before the nominalized predicate, e.g.,
125. *Romka*$_{(GEN.\ SUBIECTI)}$ *kiwanie głową*$_{(INSTR)}$
Romek's nodding the head (Topolińska: 1984: 366).
However, such constructions are most typical of colloquial speech (Rappaport 2000: 29).

and a *że*-clause. The question which suggests itself is whether the noun phrase in the dative could be a verbal noun corresponding to *-ing* in English. Then, in the absence of a *że*-clause from the complementation structure of *przyznać*, the verb pattern would coincide with the one required in translation, i.e., *verb* + *-ing*. It should be observed that in ISJP there are no symbols in verb codes analogous to *-ing* in pedagogical dictionaries of English. Instead, the names of cases show the constraints on nominal arguments imposed by the selection requirements of a verb. Yet, verbal nouns in Polish also take cases, hence the possibility of such a hypothesis.

It is worth noting that the noun phrase in the dative in the complementation pattern of *przyznać* refers to the recipient or beneficiary of the action denoted by the main verb, or a person to whom communication is directed (Swan 2008: 12). By the same token, it does not name any action or state, e.g.,

127. *Marcin ... przyznał policji*$_{(DAT)}$*, że poszedł do księdza dla pieniędzy*
(http://www.gp24.pl/apps/pbcs/dll.article, date of access 07.08.2008)
Marcin … admitted to the police that he had gone to the priest for money,

128. *Przyznał wyborcom*$_{(DAT)}$*, że kolacja z Lepperem była błędem*
(http://legia-video.com/archive/index.php/t-843.html, date of access 07.08.2008)
He admitted to the electors that supper with Lepper was a mistake.[40]

Thus, *przyznać* cannot be followed in Polish by an action nominal in the dative:

129. **Przyznaję czuciu*$_{(DAT)}$ *się trochę zdenerwowanym*
I admit feeling$_{(DAT)}$ a little nervous.

In short, the Polish verb *przyznać* can take a clausal complement introduced by *że*, which may be optionally preceded by a recipient in the dative, but it does not allow a noun derived from a verb instead of the latter. Thus, the syntax of *przyznać* in the sense under discussion could not be a source of positive transfer in the experiment.

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[40] This pattern is not illustrated by any example in ISJP, which implies that it is quite rare.

2.1.2.3.2.2. PL+ verbs

The discussion of congruence would be incomplete if PL+ verbs were passed over in silence. Although they do not require such a detailed commentary as PL– verbs, analyzed above, it might be useful to bring out some similarities in syntax between English PL+ and Polish verbs.

In the case of PL+ verbs, the structures in which Polish verbs were used coincided with the patterns necessary to correctly complete partial translations, i.e.:

verb + noun + to-infinitive:

130.	*Zalecamy*	*wam*	*kupić*	*bilety*
	We recommend	*you*	*to buy*	*tickets*
131.	*Nakazał*	*jej*	*obserwować*	*hol*
	He instructed	*her*	*to watch*	*the hall*

verb + to-infinitive:

132.	*Podróżni*	*zamierzają*	*odwiedzić*	*Afrykę*
	Travellers	*intend*	*to visit*	*Africa*

verb + noun + -ing:

133.	*Apteki zaoszczędzą*	*im*	*stania (act. nominal)*	*w kolejkach*
	Pharmacies will save	*them*	*standing*	*in queues*
134.	*To nie uniemożliwia*	*rodzicom*	*kontaktowania się (act. nominal)*	*ze szkołą*
	This does not preclude	*parents*	*contacting*	*the school*

verb + -ing:

135.	*... czy*	*zakazać*	*oglądania (act. nominal)*	*telewizji*
	... whether or not	*to prohibit*	*watching*	*television.*

In the constructions with the infinitive in 130-132, the parallels between the verb patterns in English and Polish are quite straightforward.[41] The Polish action nominals in 133-135, in turn, like all verbal substantives which end in *-enie, -anie, -cie*, are Polish analogues of English *-ing* forms. In Lewandowska's (1974: 168) words, "a certain analogy can be drawn between the Polish S_{verb} [verbal substantives] on the one hand, and English gerunds and *-ing of* nominals, on the other … The Polish S_{verb}

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[41] Other such close correspondences are discussed by Lewandowska (1976: 222-223), e.g.,

136.	Poradziłam/zabroniłam/rozkazałam	mu	czytać	powieści	angielskie
	I advised/forbade/ordered/taught	him	to read	English	fiction.

seem to combine the features of both English gerunds and *-ing of* nominals". Elsewhere she stresses that "[t]he distinction between Action and Gerundive Nominals, however, though so vital for English, does not essentially exist in the Polish language, so in many cases it will be impossible to transfer these differences into the Polish examples. The Polish structure basically employs Action Nominals in place of Action and Gerundive ones in English" (Lewandowska 1973: 234).[42] In particular, it is Polish action nominals ending in *-enie, -anie, -cie,* or verbal substantives, that closely correspond to English gerundive and action nominals (Lewandowska 1973: 242). Admittedly, Lewandowska (1973: 239) gives, among others, the following arguments for the gerundivalization of verbal substantives in Polish: modification by adverbs of manner (*śpiewanie dobrze / singing well*), introduction of the reflexive pronoun *się*, corresponding to *each other* in English (*całowanie się / kissing each other*), usage of the subjective dative (*dostarczanie książek samemu$_{[Dat]}$ / supplying the books by oneself*). Yet, English gerunds differ from Polish verbal substantives in distributional characteristics and, for example, "cannot be used as direct equivalents in all the cases where the Polish language employs the nominals derived from the verbs marked for the perfective aspect" (Lewandowska 1974: 171). Nonetheless, any such differences between Polish verbal substantives and English gerundive nominals are not really relevant to the present study. In the sentences in which they occur, correspondences between them are quite obvious.

Although the participants of the study might use the Polish verb patterns in 130-135 and properly perform the translation task, any entry for a PL+ verb, like any one for a PL– verb, provided all the information necessary to complete the English translations. Likewise, such information featured in the entries for PL+ and PL– nouns. Importantly, as pointed out in sections 2.1.2.1 and 2.1.2.3.1.2.2, it was the entries supplied in the test that the subjects were requested to rely on. The next section gives details on the microstructures.

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[42] With respect to English, the author uses the terms *action nominals* to denote *-ing of* nominals, e.g., *the reading of a book*, and *gerundive nominals* for gerundive nominals proper, e.g., *reading a book* (Lewandowska 1974: 167). While the former are considered to be usually more noun-like and the latter – more verb-like, both are claimed to illustrate intersective gradience whereby different categories (e.g., nouns and verbs) resemble each other to varying degrees (Aarts – Haegeman 2006: 123).

2.1.2.4. Dictionary entries

2.1.2.4.1. An overview

As already mentioned in section 2.1.2.2, the entries given in the tests contained information on the originally selected English nouns and verbs, which were later replaced by less frequent English substitutes. The fact that the entries were not copied from any existing dictionary but compiled for the purpose of the study made it possible to manipulate the variables crucial for testing the hypotheses.[43]

In each entry, the headword was followed by its phonetic transcription, part of speech label (*noun* or *verb*), definition and examples of usage. Wherever possible, phonetic transcription was taken from the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* (Wells 2000). It was found there for 12 of the 24 substitutes (*brogan, chinch, darnel, hachure; brail, osculate, jess, yaffle, swage, purfle, roup, transude*). To transcribe the remaining ones, OED (1997) was consulted. The use of part of speech labels in the form of full words reflects common practice in the pedagogical dictionaries on which the entry design was modeled. In fact, it is a standard way of indicating the grammatical category of headwords in CALD2, MEDAL1, OALDCE7 and, in the case of verbs – COBUILD4. Actually, only LDOCE4 employs one-letter abbreviations for this purpose. Definitions and examples were usually extracted from the dictionaries as well, as shown in detail in Table 25 and Table 26. Except for codeless entries, encoded syntactic information was supplied in the form of either mainstream or alternative codes, as illustrated in Figure 7 in section 2.1.2.1.

In what follows, definitions are discussed first. Codes and examples, only some of which were the loci of relevant syntactic information, are considered next.

2.1.2.4.2. Definitions

Analytical definitions were used in the compiled microstructures, and none of them furnished the syntactic information which was necessary to correctly complete the partial translations. First, the target syntactic properties, presented in learners' dictionaries by means of examples and codes,

[43] See sections 1.5 and 2.1.2.1.

were usually too complex to be reflected in analytical definitions. Such definitions show today only typical syntactic behaviors of definienda and are sharply-focused, rather than sufficiently vague and imprecise to account for virtually all word occurrences, as was the case in the past. Including there information on more advanced syntactic properties proved to be quite challenging. It was also doubted whether cumbersome, technical and syntactically overloaded definitions could be of any help to dictionary users unfamiliar with defining conventions (Hanks 1979: 33, 1987: 116, Svensén 1993: 130, Herbst 1996: 326, Rundell 1998: 331-333, 1999: 43-44, Dziemianko 2007: 83). Second, while definitions proved to be an important source of information on syntax (Dziemianko 2006: 146-147, 172-176), there is no denying the fact that meaning explanation remains their primary function. However, in the study, the meaning of headwords was explained in Polish sentences. Thus, the possibility that any English definitions would be simply ignored could not be ruled out. Nonetheless, some of them had to be adapted to better serve the purposes of the experiment. It was necessary to ensure that none of them betrayed the syntactic information useful in the translation task.

2.1.2.4.2.1. Nouns

In the case of those collective nouns which required singular concord in the test *(team – people (nautch), nobility (hachure), team – animals (postil))*, plural subject-verb concord was shown in definitions. Only the definition of *team – people (nautch)* had to be adapted to this end. The modification consisted in using the plural noun *people* as the genus instead of *a group of people*, because *group* itself is a collective noun and allows both singular and plural concord, which could hint at the syntactic properties of the definiendum.

By contrast, when plural subject-verb concord was needed in translation *(cast (brogan), crew (chevet), management (fanion))*, singular concord featured in collective noun definitions. To achieve this effect, original genus terms were replaced by the indefinite pronoun *anyone*: *all the performers > anyone who performs (cast (brogan))*, *a group of people > anyone who is rather dangerous (crew (chevet)), the group of people responsible for > anyone who is responsible for (management (fanion))*. Admittedly, the definitions thus modified do not imply that the definienda

are group nouns. Yet, it was an acceptable trade-off for the obtained effect, meaning being made clear by the underlined Polish words anyway.[44]

The definitions of the mass nouns to be used in the test as uncountables *(mould (gyle), injustice (darnel), sediment (mackle))* were usually altered so that the indefinite article was present before the genus, which is typical of countable definienda (Kipfer 1984: 81). For example, in the definition of *sediment (mackle),* the plural genus was put in the singular, so instead of the LDOCE4 definition:

139. *solid substances that settle at the bottom of a liquid*,

the modified definition read:

140. *a solid substance that settles at the bottom of a liquid*.[45]

Sometimes, the modification went beyond the genus. In the OALDCE7 definition of *mould3 (gyle)*:

141. *a fine, soft, green, grey or black substance like fur that grows on old food or on objects that are left in warm wet air,*

the word *fur*, to which the genus *substance* is compared, had to be removed since it is used there as an uncountable noun. In fact, if taken by students for a synonym of the headword, *fur* might furnish exactly the

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[44] Indefinite pronouns are "unambivalently singular" (Quirk at al. 1972: 365), which means that they need a verb in the singular, e.g.,

137. *Everyone thinks they have the answer* (Quirk at al. 1972: 370).

Although, as shown above, they can be co-referential with plural pronouns, such co-reference was not brought out in the modified definitions. Besides, even if it had been overtly shown, it would not have affected the invariably singular concord of indefinite pronouns with the verb. The concord was not distorted by the process known as *attraction*, either, whereby verb number is determined solely on the basis of proximity. Such "agreement of the verb with whatever noun or pronoun closely precedes it, sometimes in preference to agreement with the headword of the subject" (Quirk at al. 1972: 360) can be illustrated by:

138. *Nobody, not even the teachers, were listening.*

In the collective noun definitions referred to above, *anyone* was not followed by plural nouns or pronouns.

[45] Naturally, the original definition also shows that the noun is countable. Yet, the absence of the indefinite article before the plural genus *substances* might be imitated by some subjects in translation.

syntactic information needed in translation.[46] To be on the safe side, the uncountables *food* and *air* were removed as well, and the plural *objects* was replaced by *an object*:

144. *a fine, soft, green, grey or black substance that grows on an old object when it is warm and wet.*

When a reclassifiable noun was to be used countably in the task *(hardship (chinch), resin (jactancy), veneer (turpeth))*, and thus required the indefinite article, its dictionary definition was changed so that the indefinite article did not precede the genus term. Other information indicating that the definiendum can be used countably was eliminated from the definition as well. For example, in the CALD2 definition of *hardship (chinch):*

145. *(something which causes) difficult or unpleasant conditions of life, or an example of this*,

the part after the comma was cut out because it gives clear information on the countable use of the noun. The information in brackets was also removed as it might be taken to designate a countable agent. In effect, the following definition of *hardship (chinch)* was used in the test:

146. *difficult or unpleasant conditions of life,*

where the genus *conditions* in the sense *the circumstances or situation in which people live, work or do things* is a plural noun, an not a plural form of a countable noun (OALDCE7: *condition4*).

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[46] The subjects' focusing on *fur* was not unlikely in view of the kidrule strategy, which consists in choosing some short, familiar part of a definition, composing a sentence with it and, finally, replacing it with the definiendum (Miller – Gildea 1985, 1987). For example, on the basis of the following definition of *meticulous*:
142. *very careful or too particular about small details*,
an ill-formed sentence was produced:
143. *I was meticulous about falling off the cliff.*
Apparently, *very careful*, presumably the most familiar part of the definition was extracted from it and used in a sentence, where it was eventually substituted with *meticulous* (Miller – Gildea 1987: 91). While such a strategy was first observed in native-speaking children using a monolingual dictionary, it has also been found true for foreign learners, also advanced in English (Nesi – Meara 1994, Szczepaniak 2003, 2006).

As shown in Table 25, in the definitions of *resin (jactancy)* and *veneer (turpeth)*, the relative *what*, which itself does not take any article and does not betray any details about the countability of the definienda, was used in place of *a substance* and *a thin layer*, respectively.[47]

2.1.2.4.2.2. Verbs

Verb definitions had to meet a few conditions so as not to convey the syntactic information which could yield correct answers. First, the syntactic pattern of the genus verb had to be different from that which was necessary in the task. Second, it had to be different also from the pattern of the underlined Polish verb in the sentence offered for translation. Provided the first condition was met, the second one was automatically satisfied in the case of PL+ verbs, whose target patterns (required in translation) were congruent with those of the underlined Polish verbs. However, it was also necessary to secure the effect for PL– verbs, where no such congruence obtained. After all, if the pattern of the genus in the definition of a PL– verb happened to be the same as the pattern of the Polish verb in the sentence to be translated, and then used in translation, it would be possible to put the error down to the syntax of the genus, copied in the task, and not necessarily to interference from Polish. In the case of PL+ verbs, in turn, such corresponding patterns might skew the perception of the role which syntactic similarity between Polish and English actually played in the task.

To fit the definitions to the test, it was enough to shorten some of them, e.g., those of *recommend (vellicate)* or *prohibit (swage)*, but others required more serious alterations to fulfill the aforementioned requirements. For example, the OALDCE7 definition of *instruct1 (expiscate)*, i.e.,

147. *to tell sb to do sth, especially in a formal or official way; SYN direct, order,*

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[47] The use of *wh*-words in noun definitions has a long history in English lexicography. Stein (2011: 65-69) shows that they linked lemmata to glosses already in *The Dictionary of Syr Thomas Eliot Knyght*, a Latin-English dictionary of 1538. *When*-definitions are present even in contemporary learners' dictionaries (Lew – Dziemianko 2006a, 2006b, Dziemianko – Lew 2006, Fabiszewski-Jaworski – Grochocka 2010), regardless of the grammatical clash between the definiendum and the definiens that the absence of a generic noun entails.

was shortened by omitting the synonyms *direct* and *order*, and the genus verb was changed. In the definition of this PL+ verb, the construction with the genus *(tell sb to do sth)* corresponds to the pattern needed in the test, i.e., *instruct (expiscate) sb to do sth*:

148. *He instructed (expiscated) her to watch the hall*.

Thus, it was replaced by *charge someone with a responsibility or task*. In this sense, *charge* does not allow a full infinitive in its complementation pattern. Consequently, the modified definition could not be a source of relevant syntactic information in the test.

Likewise, in the CALD2 definition of *presume (roup)*, i.e.,

149. *to believe something to be true because it is very likely, although you are not certain*,

the construction *regard something as true* was substituted for *to believe something to be true*, and *because it is very likely* was omitted. The replacement results from the fact that the structure *to believe something to be true* coincides with the pattern in which *presume (roup),* a PL– verb, was to be used in the test:

150. *American intelligence ... presumed (rouped) them to be bunkers*.

Regard, by contrast, does not take *to*-infinitive complementation. Moreover, it does not take a *that*-clause, either, whereas in the Polish sentence, the underlined *przypuszczać* is followed by a clause introduced by *że*, which corresponds to a *that*-clause in English.

There were also a few cases where definitions were changed because a pattern of the genus not shown in the definition could be mapped onto the definiendum and yield a correct answer. To illustrate, the genus *prevent* had to be removed from the LDOCE4 definition of the PL+ verb *preclude (purfle)*, i.e.,

151. *to prevent something or make something impossible*,

because the verb can also take an *-ing* participle with a subject, e.g.,

152. *Nothing would prevent him / his speaking out against injustice* (OALDCE7: *prevent).*

This pattern, in turn, coincides with that necessary to complete the partial translation, i.e.,

153. *preclude (purfle) parents contacting the school*.

No such correspondence obtained once the explanation had been abbreviated to *make something impossible*.

Occasionally, the genus was changed because in a sense different from the one in which it was used in the definition, but undoubtedly well known to the subjects, it functions in the structure required in translation. For example, in the LDOCE4 definition of the PL+ verb *intend1 (jess)*, i.e.,

154. *to have something in your mind as a plan or purpose,*

the genus *have* was replaced by *keep*. The change resulted from the fact that *have*, in contrast to *keep*, can be followed by a full infinitive, e.g.,

155. *They didn't have to pay tax* (COBUILD4: *have4*),

the pattern to be used in the translation task being:

156. *intend (jess) to visit Africa*.

Admittedly, the verb *have* in such a structure refers to obligation. Yet, even intermediate learners of English are bound to be familiar with the construction and might easily associate it with the genus *have*.

It is also worth mentioning that in the LDOCE4 definition of *save6 (yaffle),* i.e.,

157. *to help someone by making it unnecessary for them to do something that they do not want to do*,

the construction *to help someone by making* seemed too close to *save (yaffle) them standing,* needed in the test. To avoid hinting at the fact that *save (yaffle)*, a PL+ verb, needs complementation by an *-ing* participle clause with a subject, *make*, for which this pattern is impossible, was used as a genus in the modified definition:

158. *to make it unnecessary for someone to do something*.

Overall, relevant information on verb syntax could not be inferred from the definitions in the supplied entries. It was also ensured that no genus in a PL– verb definition appeared in the same structure as the underlined verb in the Polish sentence offered for translation.

2.1.2.4.3. Codes

2.1.2.4.3.1. Nouns

In the entries compiled for the test, noun codes preceded definitions, thereby reflecting the distribution of encoded syntactic information in the pedagogical dictionaries on which the microstructures were modeled except for COBUILD4. Alternative noun codes were drawn from COBUILD4, while mainstream ones from OALDCE7.[48] An alternative code was not found for *team (postil)*, because *team* in the sense *animals that are used to pull a vehicle* is absent from COBUILD4. Thus, the code [N-COUNT-COLL] corresponding to the mainstream one [C+sing./pl. v.] from OALDCE7 was devised.

Some noun codes extracted from the dictionaries had to be adapted. The adaptations consisted mainly in making mainstream and alternative codes parallel. As for collective nouns, the OALDCE7 code for *crew4 (chevet)*, [sing.], was changed into [sing.+ sing./pl. v.]. The indication of singular and plural concord with the verb was indispensable to make the code a source of relevant syntactic information, matching the alternative code [N-SING-COLL]. Also, the OALDCE7 code for *management2 (fanion)*, [C+sing./pl. v., U], was shortened to [C+sing./pl. v.]. Omitting the information on the uncountable use of the noun made the code tally with other mainstream codes for collective nouns, none of which included any additional information on uncountability. Besides, the alternative code for *management (fanion)*, [N-VAR-COLL], was turned into [N-COUNT-COLL] to make it consistent with the aforementioned mainstream code and other alternative codes for collective nouns. All such modifications ensured a close correspondence between alternative and mainstream codes as well as between codes for PL+ and PL– collective nouns, as shown in Table 27.

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[48] Compare the discussion in sections 1.4.3.2.3 and 1.4.3.2.5-1.4.3.2.6.

Table 27. Codes for collective nouns in the study

Congruence	English noun (substitute)	Alternative code	Mainstream code
PL+	*team – people (nautch)*	[N-COUNT-COLL]	[C+sing./pl. v.]
	nobility (hachure)	[N-SING-COLL]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]
	team – animals (postil)	[N-COUNT-COLL]	[C+sing./pl. v.]
PL–	*cast (brogan)*	[N-COUNT-COLL]	[C+sing./pl. v.]
	crew (chevet)	[N-SING-COLL]	[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]
	management (fanion)	[N-COUNT-COLL]	[C+sing./pl. v.]

As regards reclassifiable nouns, [C, U], the OALDCE7 mainstream code for *resin (jactancy)*, was reordered into [U, C] to make it agree with the code for *gyle (mould)*. Importantly, *resin (jactancy),* a PL– noun, and *gyle (mould),* a PL+ noun, are both given the same alternative code [N-MASS], the other PL– and PL+ reclassifiable nouns being coded [N-VAR]. The aforementioned change was thus necessary to make the mainstream codes for the nouns parallel as well. The corresponding sets of mainstream and alternative codes for PL+ and PL– reclassifiable nouns are shown in Table 28.

Table 28. Codes for reclassifiable nouns in the study

Congruence	English noun (substitute)	Alternative code	Mainstream code
PL+	*injustice (darnel)*	[N-VAR]	[C, U]
	mould (gyle)	[N-MASS]	[U, C]
	sediment (mackle)	[N-VAR]	[C, U]
PL–	*hardship (chinch)*	[N-VAR]	[C, U]
	resin (jactancy)	[N-MASS]	[U, C]
	veneer (turpeth)	[N-VAR]	[C, U]

It should be noted that in the case of alternative codes for reclassifiable nouns, i.e. [N-VAR] or [N-MASS], there was no part of the codes that could be chosen to produce correct translations. In other words, each code as a whole, rather than only a part thereof, supplied the relevant information. By contrast, in mainstream codes for reclassifiable nouns, the information conveyed by either [C] or [U] was enough to complete translations, as indicated by bold print in Table 28. In alternative and mainstream codes for collective nouns, in turn, [-COLL] and [+sing./pl. v.], respectively, were the loci of the needed information. This raises the question of how the consultation of noun codes in the experiment should be

judged, i.e., whether it would be justifiable to expect the subjects to choose only the relevant parts of some noun codes or not. As a matter of fact, it seems more reasonable to take into account (also) the dictionary searches where codes were underlined in their entirety, and not just in parts. For one thing, the subjects were not instructed to focus on specific code constituents. Such a suggestion would surely draw their attention to codes and, consequently, affect the process of dictionary use. For another, in contrast to verb codes, discussed below, in a noun entry there was just one code enclosed in square brackets before the definition. This approach, as already mentioned, imitating the lexicographic practice in the dictionaries on which the noun entries were modeled, suggests that any noun code should be treated as a unit which conveys concise information on the full set of syntactic properties of a noun. Thus, the form of codes, their number and distribution in the microstructure justify (the subjects') treating any noun code as a compact and largely indivisible whole.

2.1.2.4.3.2. Verbs

Like in the case of nouns, the placement of verb codes in the compiled microstructures mirrored their distribution in the pedagogical dictionaries (other than COBUILD4) on which the entries were modeled. Thus, a coded verb pattern preceded an example. The mainstream codes used in the test were usually drawn from OALDCE7 and COBUILD4, and alternative ones – from CALD2.[49] In the case of *intend (jess)*, the alternative code [T + obj + *as* + n] was not found in CALD2, but it was created to represent one of the patterns shown in the verb entry in the test, in which *intend* occurs in CIDE.[50] Similarly, for *preclude (purfle)*, it was necessary to devise alternative codes corresponding to mainstream ones from OALDCE7 and COBUILD4, the verb being accompanied only by [T] in CALD2.

In mainstream codes, lower case letters showed complementation patterns and only the verb symbol [V] was given in upper case, like in COBUILD4. The hyphen, present in OALDCE7 to signal copular relationships, was not employed. Alternative codes were adjusted to make them parallel to mainstream ones. Thus, [T], which in CALD2 usually

[49] See sections 1.4.3.1.1-1.4.3.1.3.

[50] Details on the number of patterns in a verb entry and criteria for their selection are given below.

precedes definitions, was incorporated into alternative codes for complementation patterns. Besides, while in the dictionary it designates either a transitive verb or a transitive verb together with its object, in the experiment it stood for a transitive verb alone. Similarly, regardless of the inconsistent use of [obj] in CALD2, in the experiment it invariably denoted a nominal or pronominal object and was integrated into alternative codes as well.[51]

To get a better insight into the differences between the two types of verb codes in the compiled entries, relevant symbols are juxtaposed in Table 29.

Table 29. Symbols in mainstream and alternative verb codes in the study

Alternative	**Mainstream**
T	V
obj	n
-ing	-ing
question word	wh-
to infinitive	to inf
n	n
speech	speech
adj	adj
that	that

As can be seen, apart from the symbols for the verb and (pro)nominal objects, differences between alternative and mainstream codes lie in the representation of *wh*-clauses and full infinitives, which reflects the coding conventions in CALD2 on the one hand, and OALDCE7 and COBUILD4 on the other. It should also be noted that while in CALD2 [n] is supposed to feature in codes for verbs which take an object followed by a noun (CALD2: the inside front cover), in the study it also accompanies prepositions to ensure comparability between the alternative and mainstream systems.[52]

Any verb entry in the test included three codes and three examples fleshing them out, arranged in pairs. Their sequence was based on that in OALDCE7, and was the same in entries with mainstream and alternative

[51] Compare the discussion in section 1.4.3.1.3.1 and Dziemianko (in press).

[52] As pointed out in section 1.4.3.1.3.1, CALD2 uses bold type in examples to signal the need for prepositions in verb complementation structures.

codes. The OALDCE7 arrangement was sometimes modified so that there were no differences in the place of codes and examples useful in the translation task between PL+ and PL– verbs. The digits in Table 30 show the position of helpful codes and examples in each verb entry.

Table 30. Distribution of useful codes and examples in verb entries

PL+ verbs	**PL– verbs**
[V(n) -ing] [T+(obj)+-ing]	
preclude (purfle), prohibit (swage) **2**	**2** *envisage (brail), admit (aurify)*
save (yaffle) **3**	**3** *involve (loricate)*
[V(n) to inf] [T+(obj)+to infinitive]	
recommend (vellicate), intend (jess) **2**	**2** *presume (roup), petition (osculate)*
instruct (expiscate) **3**	**3** *pronounce (transude)*

As can be seen, the distribution of relevant syntactic information was the same for PL+ and PL– verbs, and also in the sets distinguished on the basis of the pattern required in translation. Therefore, the order of codes and examples cannot be seen as a factor which might have influenced the results obtained in verb tests.

The selection of patterns for a verb entry was very careful as it was necessary to ensure that the subjects could deduce the required pattern from only one code of the three given. For example, if the structure to be used in translation was designated by [Vn] / [T + obj], and the codes given in the entry would include also [Vn -ing] / [T + obj + ing] or [Vn n] / [T + obj + n], a dictionary user might gather from them that, among other things, a noun / an object must follow the verb. Thus, all of them could be potentially useful. Conversely, the codes [Vn] / [T + obj] could not presuppose either [Vn -ing] / [T + obj + ing] or [Vn n] / [T + obj + n], since they do not imply that an *-ing* form or a noun phrase is needed after the noun phrase / the object coming right after the verb. Likewise, if the pattern [Vn to inf] / [T + obj + to infinitive] was needed in translation, the codes [Vn -ing] / [T + obj + -ing] or [Vn that] / [T + obj + that] were bound to be useless, because none of them betrays the fact that the verb allows the full infinitive in its complementation pattern.

As shown in Table 26, in any verb entry, the verb pattern required in translation was represented by only one code, and its constituents could not be inferred from the other codes. In the vast majority of cases, careful selection of codes from dictionary entries ensured the effect. Sometimes,

rarer verb patterns were employed, introduced in OALDCE7 by *Also*.[53] In one case, codes were devised. The pattern coded [Vn to inf] / [T + obj + to infinitive] features in the entry for *prohibit (swage)*, but is absent from the consulted dictionaries, where the verb is shown in patterns which, in line with the coding conventions followed in the study, could be represented by [Vn] / [T + obj], [V -ing] / [T + -ing], [Vn ing] / [T + obj + -ing] and [Vn *from* ing] / [T + obj + *from* + ing]. Of these, [Vn] / [T + obj] and [V -ing] / [T + -ing] were employed in the entry for *prohibit (swage)* in the test. The latter, which show that the verb requires an *-ing* participle clause in its complementation pattern, illustrate the syntactic structure in which *swage* was to be used in the test. Yet, [Vn ing] / [T + obj + -ing] and [Vn *from* ing] / [T + obj + *from* + ing] could also imply that an *-ing* clause can follow the verb. Seen as a potential source of useful information, they were opted out. The codes [Vn to inf] / [T + obj + to infinitive] eventually used in the entry for *prohibit (swage)* together with [Vn] / [T + obj] and [V -ing] / [T + -ing] were chosen by analogy with those for *admit (aurify)*, a PL– verb which, apart from the level of congruence, corresponds most closely to *prohibit (swage)*.[54]

Overall, in a verb entry, one out of three codes could help the subjects in the translation task. In a noun entry, by contrast, one code was supplied, which conveyed information on reclassification or subject-verb concord in number. Thus, reference to codes might have been different in noun and verb entries. Yet, it had to be the case as long as the subjects' decisions were to remain close to those made when consulting noun and verb codes in the pedagogical dictionaries on which not only the form of codes in the experiment was modeled, but also their number and distribution.[55]

2.1.2.4.4. Examples

In any compiled entry, all the coded syntactic structures were illustrated by examples. In an entry for a reclassifiable noun, the countable and uncountable uses of the headword were shown in one example each. In a collective noun entry, where encoded information indicated the possibility

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[53] See section 1.4.3.1.3.2.

[54] Both verbs had to be used in the test in the pattern coded [V -ing] / [T + -ing]. The following codes were also given in the entry for *admit (aurify)*: [Vn] / [T + obj] and [Vn to inf] / [T + obj + to infinitive]. See Table 24, Table 26 and Table 30.

[55] This point resurfaces in section 3.2.

of singular and plural concord with the verb, a singular verb featured in one example, and a plural one in the other.[56] In any noun entry, examples were separated by a white diamond (◊). Their sequence was determined by the arrangement of symbols in mainstream codes.[57] Collective nouns, whose mainstream codes (e.g., [C+sing./pl. v.]) indicated the possibility of first – singular and then – plural concord, were illustrated by example sentences arranged accordingly. In a reclassifiable noun entry, examples presenting the countable and uncountable uses of the headword reflected the sequence of symbols in the supplied mainstream code ([C, U] or [U, C]). The same arrangement of examples was imposed on noun entries with alternative codes as well as on codeless ones.

Likewise, in verb entries, each code was illustrated by one example separated graphically from the next code in the same entry by means of a white diamond (◊). The order of examples in the entry for a given verb was the same, regardless of the presence of codes or their form.

In the vast majority of cases, examples were taken from the same dictionaries as codes and definitions. Only when appropriate examples could not be found there were corpora consulted. The harvested corpus sentences were shortened and difficult words or advanced grammatical structures were edited out.[58] There were also a few cases where even dictionary examples had to be altered for the purposes of the study. To illustrate, the OALDCE7 examples for *cast1 (brogan)*, i.e.,

159. *The whole cast performs / perform brilliantly*,

and *management2 (fanion)*, i.e.,

160. *The management is / are considering closing the factory*,

were simplified by removing *perform* and *is*, respectively. As a result, each example illustrated either singular or plural subject-verb concord.

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[56] Naturally, the countability of collective nouns, also represented in codes, was illustrated by the examples as well.

[57] As pointed out in section 2.1.2.4.3.1, alternative codes for reclassifiable nouns ([N-VAR], [N-MASS]) did not present their syntactic properties in any specific order; each of them as a whole conveyed the relevant information. Similarly, in alternative codes for collective nouns, [-COLL] could not suggest any specific sequence of examples featuring singular and plural verbs.

[58] Details are given in Table 25 and Table 26.

The above information on the selection of examples, their modification and distribution in the microstructure concludes the presentation of test constituents. The next section gives an insight into the procedures followed at the stages of data collection and data arrangement.

2.2. Procedures and data organization

2.2.1. Data collection

As already mentioned in section 2.1.1, the experiment was conducted by test administrators and the author herself. First, the author carried it out on the sample of 117 people to test the procedure and see whether there could be any unexpected problems. The procedure required no significant modifications and no serious problems cropped up. Only then were the administrators involved. Each of them was carefully instructed orally how to proceed and additionally received a detailed instruction in writing.[59] Having conducted the study, the administrators reported on the process and gave detailed feedback. None of them encountered any practical difficulties or voiced reservations about the reliability of the gathered data. The administrators were university teachers (22 people) and advanced students of English preparing their MA projects on lexicography or attending seminars on lexicography and dictionary use (20 people).

The study was carried out in regular class time (45 minutes), in rooms and conditions in which the subjects always had classes. It was conducted in March and April 2006. The same procedure was followed by all the administrators, who were not allowed to introduce any modifications. For any group involved in the study, each administrator obtained an envelope with as many test sheets as there were students in the group.

First, tests were numbered and arranged in over 150 consecutive sets of six (NCA, NCM, NC0, VCA, VCM, VC0). This collection constituted the pool from which the sheets were later partitioned and distributed among the administrators. Importantly, any collection of tests an administrator obtained in an envelope began with the test type which immediately followed the last test in the batch prepared before. This helped to ensure approximately equal distribution of test types among the subjects.[60] The

[59] See Appendix A.3 and section 2.1.1.

[60] Details are offered in section 2.3.1.

tests were to be given out in exactly the same order in which they had been put in the envelopes. Each envelope with the required number of test sheets was sealed and marked with the name of the relevant administrator and the symbol of the group where the experiment was to be conducted.

Once test sheets had been distributed in an experimental session, the subjects' attention was drawn to the instruction on the first page.[61] The instruction was read out by the administrator, who then explained orally what was expected of the participants. They were told that their task consisted in completing partial English translations of 12 Polish sentences using the words for which dictionary entries were given. It was stressed that it was these English words and not any others that had to be used, and that their equivalents were underlined in the Polish sentences. The subjects were requested to consult the dictionary entries below the Polish sentences for information on how to use the English words and underline there the piece or pieces of information which they considered helpful in completing the English translations. It was pointed out that different tests versions had been given out and that at the end of some of them there was additional information on the symbols used in the entries. The subjects were also informed that on the last page of any test there was a questionnaire. They were asked to fill it out once they had completed their tasks. The students were assured that both the test and the questionnaire were anonymous. Although 35 minutes were allotted to the tasks, the administrators were allowed to give the participants more time should the need arise, but none of them reported such a need. In the course of the experiment, the subjects were reminded that they had two tasks to do in the test, that is complete the translations *and* underline useful information in the dictionary entries. They were also reminded about the questionnaire. After the allotted time, the tests were collected and put into the envelopes from which they had been taken. In the meantime, the teacher of English (or the administrator, if s/he taught English the group taking part in the experiment) was requested to fill out the questionnaire for the teacher.[62] The questionnaire was returned in the same envelope as the tests completed by the subjects and any test sheets which remained unused due to some students' absence.

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[61] See Appendix A.4.

[62] See section 2.1.1 and Appendix A.2.

2.2.2. Data rostering

The information obtained from the tests and the subjects' questionnaire was stored in spreadsheets, one spreadsheet for each test type and one for the accompanying questionnaire. In any spreadsheet, the subjects' proficiency was also recorded.[63] The spreadsheets with test and questionnaire results made up separate files.

A spreadsheet with test results was divided into 12 sections corresponding to the 12 words which had to be used in translation. Any such section fell into two parts: one concerning the translation task and one devoted to dictionary consultation. In the former, the subjects' translations were marked as correct or incorrect.[64] In the latter, the available sources of syntactic information were specified (i.e., examples and codes) and, where applicable, divided into relevant and irrelevant to the task in hand.[65] The subjects' choices, manifested by underlining, were noted there. Each row in the spreadsheet represented one subject's answers and look-ups, and was assigned the same number as the test.

Any spreadsheet with information from the subjects' questionnaire was divided into sections which corresponded to questionnaire points. Further subdivisions within each section were determined by the number of options given to the subjects in a specific point.[66] Like in the case of test results, the information from the questionnaire filled out by a subject was stored in one row, assigned the same number as the test which the questionnaire accompanied.

The subjects' translations, choices made in entries and answers given in the questionnaire were marked [1] in relevant cells. The qualitative information elicited in point eight of the questionnaire, where the participants were requested to supply details on the routinely consulted dictionaries, was the only exception in this regard. Otherwise, the two six-spreadsheet files, broken down into test types, enabled data quantification and further computations. Eventually, the quantified data were fed into a statistical package (Statistica 7.1).

The foregoing discussion centered on the materials used in the study. Emphasis was placed on the test, indispensable for achieving the aims of

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[63] Details are given in section 2.3.1.

[64] Section 3.1.1 explains evaluation criteria.

[65] Compare the discussion in sections 2.1.2.4.3 and 2.1.2.4.4.

[66] Details are offered in section 2.1.1 and Appendix A.1.

the research and verifying the hypotheses. The following sections give an insight into the make-up of the samples of students who participated in the study. The subjects' dictionary using habits, reference skills and needs are discussed on the basis of the information obtained from the questionnaire.

2.3. Subjects

2.3.1. Introduction

In the experiment, information was obtained from 893 subjects, all of whom were native speakers of Polish. Among them, there were 507 students of English at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland, in all years of study. The other 386 students attended (junior) high schools across the country. The former were proficient or advanced in English (henceforth AS for *advanced subjects*). The latter were mainly at the intermediate level (hereafter IS for *intermediate subjects*). The proficiency of the university students was determined on the basis of the grammar test in the practical English final exam, administered at the end of each year of study in the BA program and after the first year in the MA program. The level of the tests mirrored those of the Cambridge Examinations – advanced for year 1BA, advanced with elements of proficiency for year 2BA and proficiency for years 3BA and 1MA. The level of the (junior) high school subjects, in turn, was established on the basis of points four, five and six of the teacher's questionnaire, where English teachers were requested to give details on the textbook used in class and assess the level of their students.[67] Importantly, in point five, the teachers invariably indicated the same level as the one given in the title of the textbook specified in point four. The additional information on the subjects' proficiency obtained from point six, usually concerning motivation for learning English and class management, did not throw any new light on their knowledge of English. Table 31 gives more details on the composition of the sample.

[67] See Appendix A.2 and section 2.1.1.

Table 31. Subjects by years of study (AS) and proficiency levels (IS)

AS			IS		
Year of study	**Count**	**%**	**Level**	**Count**	**%**
1BA	131	25.8	Upper-intermediate	47	12.2
2BA	110	21.7	Intermediate	300	77.7
3BA	84	16.6	Pre-intermediate	39	10.1
1MA	111	21.9			
2MA	71	14.0			
Total	507	100.0		386	100.0

As can be seen, most AS, i.e., about one fourth of the group, were in year 1BA, while the fewest, 14 percent – in year 2MA. There were only a few more AS in year 3BA than in 2MA. Years 2BA and 1MA accounted for about one fifth of the sample each. The data show as well that about four fifths of the IS were intermediate in English. Yet, in the group there were also subjects whose proficiency level was described as upper-intermediate and pre-intermediate. They were eventually included in the category of IS since their proportions were relatively small and approximately equal; each fraction accounted for about one tenth of the sample. Therefore, any effects which they might have produced must have been opposite (due to proficiency level) and counterbalanced (due to size), so the big picture is unlikely to be distorted. Besides, the two subgroups are too small to be considered separately. According them individual treatment would preclude statistical analyses.

The distribution of the tests used in the experiment among the subjects is represented in Table 32.

The data show that in each group (AS and IS) about 16-17 percent of the subjects dealt with one test. This even distribution of test versions results from the strict administering procedure adopted in the experiment and described in section 2.2.1.

In what follows, the subjects' profile is built up on the basis of the consecutive points of the questionnaire shown in Appendix A.1 and introduced in section 2.1.1.

Table 32. Distribution of test versions across the subjects at two proficiency levels

Test	AS		IS	
	Count	**%**	**Count**	**%**
NCA	84	16.6	69	17.9
NCM	85	16.8	65	16.8
NC0	83	16.4	62	16.1
VCA	85	16.8	66	17.1
VCM	84	16.6	65	16.8
VC0	86	17.0	59	15.3
Total	507	100.0	386	100.0

2.3.2. Subjects' profile

2.3.2.1. Gender

The subjects' responses to point one of the questionnaire, in which they were requested to indicate their gender, are summarized in Table 33, which also presents the results of the Chi-square test.[68]

The data reveal that in each proficiency group women were in the majority; over four fifths of the AS and three fifths of the IS were women. The values of the Chi-square statistic indicate that the distribution of the tests was independent of the subjects' gender. In other words, in each sample, comparable proportions of men and women dealt with all tests. It follows that gender could not have significantly affected differences between the results achieved in specific tests in either group. Thus, the Chi-square test does not justify paying attention to gender in further inter-test comparisons.

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[68] Table B.1 in the appendix gives expected frequencies and deviances. That the role of gender in extracting syntactic information from pedagogical dictionaries is worth investigating was shown by Dziemianko (2006: 158-160), who found, among other things, that at the intermediate level, women referred to codes much more frequently than men. In the advanced group, by contrast, the reverse was true, though only for one entry type. In a few investigated microstructures, gender also affected reference to examples inasmuch as men located there syntactic information much more often than women.

Table 33. Distribution of test versions across the subjects: Women and men

Test	Count (AS)			% (AS)			Count (IS)			% (IS)		
	Women	**Men**	**Total**	**Women**	**Men**	**Total**	**Women**	**Men**	**Total**	**Women**	**Men**	**Total**
NCA	68	16	84	81.0	19.0	100.0	46	23	69	66.7	33.3	100.0
NCM	72	13	85	84.7	15.3	100.0	41	24	65	63.1	36.9	100.0
NC0	71	12	83	85.5	14.5	100.0	39	23	62	62.9	37.1	100.0
VCA	70	15	85	82.4	17.6	100.0	39	27	66	59.1	40.9	100.0
VCM	69	15	84	82.1	17.9	100.0	42	23	65	64.6	35.4	100.0
VC0	66	20	86	76.7	23.3	100.0	37	22	59	62.7	37.3	100.0
Total	416	91	507	82.1	17.9	100.0	244	142	386	63.2	36.8	100.0
	df=5, alpha=0.05, $\text{Chi-square}_{\text{critical}}$ =11.070; p=0.73, $\text{Chi-square}_{\text{observed}}$ =2.813						df=5, alpha=0.05, $\text{Chi-square}_{\text{critical}}$ =11.070; p=0.97, $\text{Chi-square}_{\text{observed}}$ =0.901					

2.3.2.2. Use of symbol description

Table 34 presents data from point two of the questionnaire, in which the subjects had to reveal their familiarity with the explanation of symbols available in tests with codes as well as assess its comprehensibility and usefulness. The familiarity, comprehensibility and usefulness are designated below by *read*, *understood* and *used*, respectively. Apart from the data in absolute and percentage terms, the table gives the results of the Chi-square test as well as the total number of subjects at each proficiency level who coped with tests in which dictionary entries featured codes (*Total AS-codes, Total IS-codes*). Additionally, the relevant percentages are illustrated in Figure 14.[69]

[69] Details on the Chi-square test are presented in Table B.2 in the appendix. The different degrees of freedom (*df*) and critical values of Chi-square for both groups in Table 34 result from the fact that answer B was never chosen by the AS. For the Chi-square test to be reliable, expected frequencies in any cell should not fall below five (Hatch – Farhady 1982: 170). As shown in Table B.2, in each test, the expected frequency of selecting answer B by the AS equals zero, which precludes the computation of relative discrepancies between the observed and expected frequencies. In such cases it is advisable to condense the contingency table by reducing the number of columns or rows, or both, and collapse some categories to increase expected frequencies and eliminate the smallest ones, provided the distribution of problem cells and the nature of the data make it possible (Guilford 1942: 173; Ferguson 1959: 172; Woods – Fletcher – Hughes 1986: 144). Thus, answers A and B given by the AS were treated jointly (*A+B* in Table B.2).

Table 34. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes

Answer	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**Sum**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**Sum**
Read	***No***	***Yes***	***Yes***	***Yes***		***No***	***Yes***	***Yes***	***Yes***	
Understood	***No***	***No***	***Yes***	***Yes***		***No***	***No***	***Yes***	***Yes***	
Used	***No***	***No***	***No***	***Yes***		***No***	***No***	***No***	***Yes***	
AS										
NCA	47	0	13	24	84	56.0	0.0	15.5	28.6	100.0
NCM	50	0	6	28	84	59.5	0.0	7.1	33.3	100.0
VCA	61	0	7	14	82	74.4	0.0	8.5	17.1	100.0
VCM	59	0	7	18	84	70.2	0.0	8.3	21.4	100.0
Total	217	0	33	84	334	65.0	0.0	9.9	25.1	100.0
Total AS-codes					338					
	AS: df=6; alpha=0.05; Chi $_{critical}$= 12.592; p=0.07, Chi $_{observed}$= 11.784									
IS										
NCA	39	5	8	16	68	57.4	7.3	11.8	23.5	100.0
NCM	36	3	14	10	63	57.1	4.8	22.2	15.9	100.0
VCA	42	7	10	6	65	64.6	10.8	15.4	9.2	100.0
VCM	35	7	12	9	63	55.6	11.1	19.0	14.3	100.0
Total	152	22	44	41	259	58.7	8.5	17.0	15.8	100.0
Total IS-codes					265					
	IS: df=9; alpha=0.05, Chi $_{critical}$= 16.919; p=0.40, Chi $_{observed}$= 9.376									

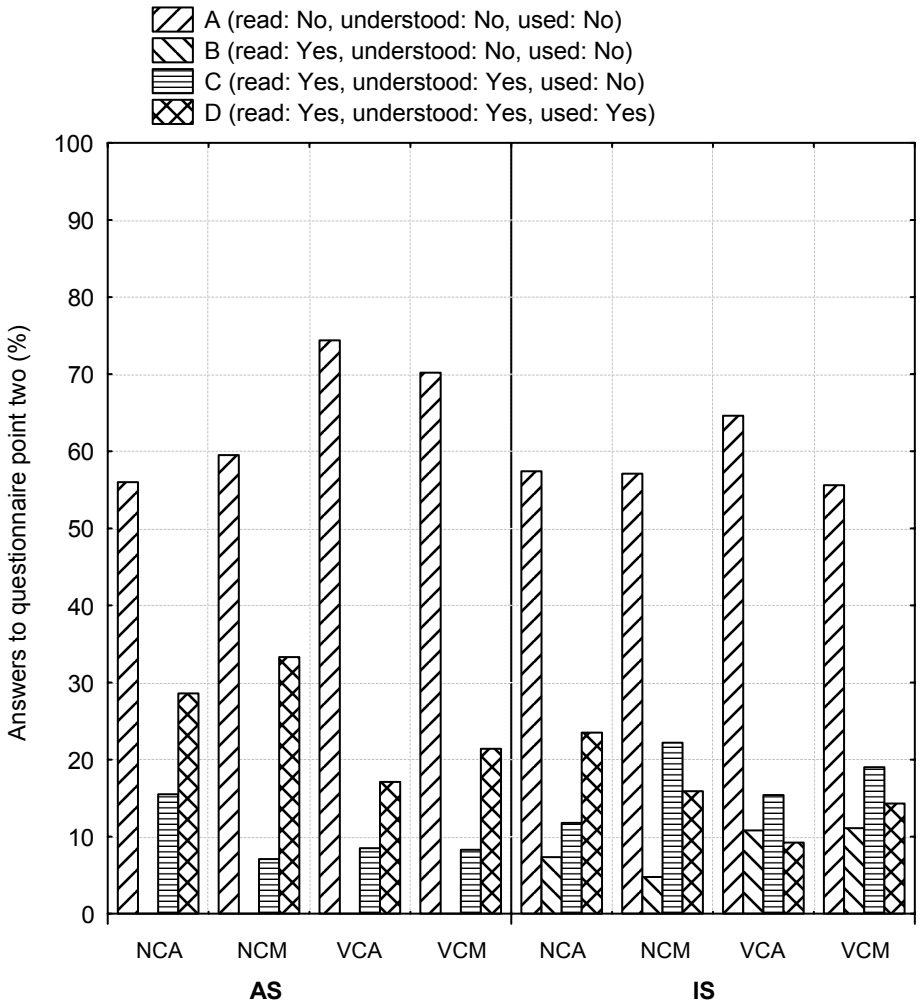

Figure 14. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes (percentages)

As can be seen, the majority (over three fifths) of the AS who responded to point two of the questionnaire did not even read the description of codes. One fourth of the subjects, by contrast, took full advantage of the information, as they not only read and understood it, but also used it in practice. Importantly, all the subjects who familiarized themselves with the extra material considered it easily comprehensible. Yet, about one third of them (or one tenth of all the AS who answered point two) main-

tained that even though the information was clear, they did not find it useful. The results of the Chi-square test indicate that there was no statistically significant relationship between the subjects' responses and the type of dictionary they consulted in the experiment.

Like in the group of the AS, most IS (around three fifths) did not acquaint themselves with the extra information on codes. About 16 percent of the IS who expressed their opinion in point two, in turn, claimed that they not only read and grasped the information, but also found it useful. Approximately as many subjects maintained that although the information was comprehensible, it did not help them use the dictionaries in the test. Unfortunately, in contrast to the more advanced group, one student in twelve considered the information too difficult. Importantly, the Chi-square test shows that the subjects' answers were not related to the type of dictionary they consulted in the study. Thus, like in the other group, the responses were similar in all tests.

In view of the fact that at both proficiency levels the subjects' opinions of the extra material on codes turned out to be independent of the dictionary used, only the aggregate percentages for the two groups will be compared below. The relevant data along with the results of the Z test are given in Table 35. The percentages are also shown in Figure 15.[70]

Table 35. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes across proficiency levels

Answer	Read	Understood	Used	P1 (AS)	P2 (IS)	Z Test	p
A	No	No	No	65.0	58.7	1.565	0.12
B	Yes	No	No	0.0	8.5	-5.428	0.00*
C	Yes	Yes	No	9.9	17.0	-2.554	0.01*
D	Yes	Yes	Yes	25.1	15.8	2.760	0.01*

[70] Wherever the results of the Z test are tabulated, the data are presented in the following order: the percentages compared (designated by P1 and P2), the value of the test statistic and probability (p) for the observed value of Z. The asterisk additionally marks differences statistically significant at alpha=0.05. Unless clearly stated otherwise, the two-tailed Z test for independent observations was conducted, where $Z_{critical}=|1.960|$.

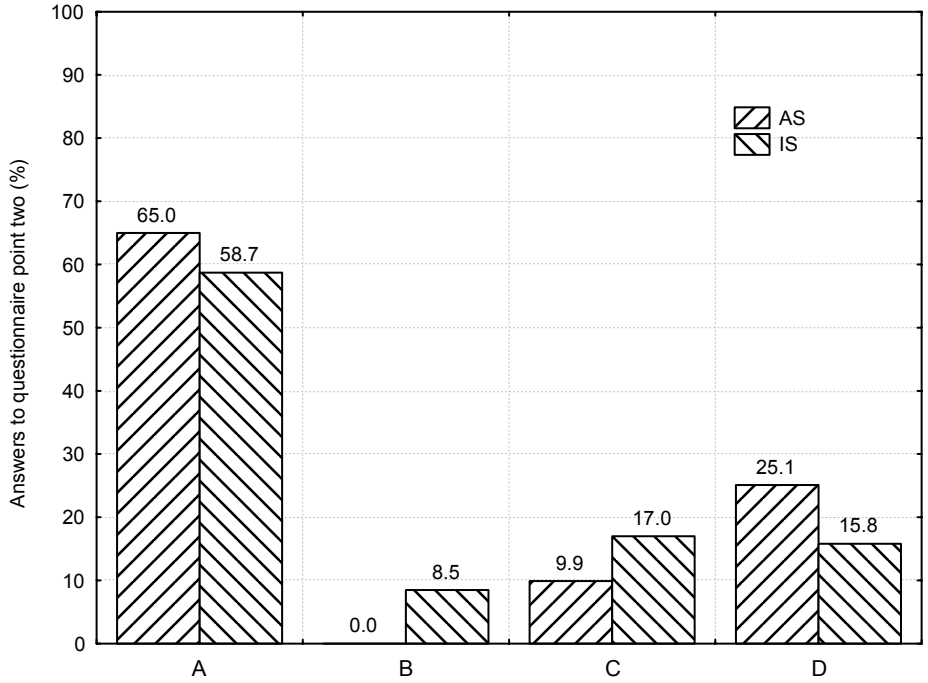

Figure 15. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes across proficiency levels

The data show that the AS (65.0%) and the IS (58.7%) comparably often ignored the information on symbols used in codes; the difference of six percentage points between the groups has no statistical significance. By contrast, the AS (25.1%) around 60 percent more often than the IS (15.8%) declared that they had been helped by the extra material on codes. In this case the difference between the groups is highly significant. However, the IS much more frequently than the AS confessed to facing problems with understanding the information or making use of it in practice; the IS (17.0%) admitted that the explanation, though clear, had been of no help over 70 percent more often than the AS (9.9%).

The obtained results suggest that the description of codes should be rendered more accessible to intermediate students of English. Second, while it is not surprising that the advanced learners of English were able to profit from the explanation much more frequently than the intermediate ones, it should be borne in mind that the majority of the subjects ignored it. The general neglect of the additional information on codes in both

groups no doubt further justifies the move towards code transparency in pedagogical dictionaries.[71]

2.3.2.3. Situational contexts of dictionary use

2.3.2.3.1. An overview

Table 36 summarizes the subjects' answers given in point three, where they specified the frequency of dictionary consultation at home (A) and in class (B). The table also presents the results of the Chi-square test.[72]

Table 36. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context

Test	**A (At home)**				**B (In class)**			
	v. often	**sometimes**	**never**	**sum**	**v. often**	**sometimes**	**never**	**sum**
AS								
NCA	59	24	1	84	13	37	26	76
NCM	61	22	2	85	15	37	23	75
NC0	63	19	1	83	12	33	26	71
VCA	64	20	1	85	9	35	24	68
VCM	57	27	0	84	8	31	35	74
VC0	60	25	1	86	13	39	30	82
Total	364	137	6	507	70	212	164	446
	df=5; $Chi_{critical}$=11.070, alpha=0.05; p=0.83, $Chi_{observed}$ = 2.124				df=10; $Chi_{critical}$=18.307, alpha=0.05; p=0.78, $Chi_{observed}$= 6.409			
IS								
NCA	16	31	19	66	4	32	23	59
NCM	7	31	23	61	3	29	21	53
NC0	11	31	18	60	7	29	21	57
VCA	12	27	18	57	4	23	24	51
VCM	11	26	19	56	6	20	28	54
VC0	6	31	18	55	3	23	27	53
Total	63	177	115	355	27	156	144	327
	df=10; $Chi_{critical}$=18.307, alpha=0.05; p=0.76, $Chi_{observed}$= 6.634				df=5; $Chi_{critical}$= 11.070, alpha=0.05; p=0.44, $Chi_{observed}$= 4.781			

[71] See sections 1.4.3.1.2 and 1.4.3.1.3.

[72] Details on the computations are offered in Table B.3 in the appendix. The table shows that some expected frequencies were lower than five (AS: *A (at home) never*; IS: *B (in class) v. often*). The number of columns in the original contingency tables had to be reduced accordingly to meet the requirement of minimal expected frequencies, hence the different degrees of freedom and critical values of the test statistic in Table 36.

As can be seen, in each group, the distribution of answers concerning the frequency of dictionary consultation at home and in class was similar in all tests. Consequently, any possible influence of the participants' experience of using dictionaries in the investigated contexts (especially in an institutional setting) on their performance in the study was comparable in all the experimental conditions. Thus, test types are not considered in further analysis of the data.

2.3.2.3.2. Advanced subjects

Data on the AS' responses in point three, expressed in absolute and percentage terms, are presented in Table 37. The percentages are additionally illustrated in Figure 16. The table also shows lower (*L*) and upper (*U*) limits of confidence intervals estimated around the percentages as well as cumulative (*Cum.*) counts and percentages.[73]

Table 37. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS)

Category	A (At home)						B (In class)					
	Count	**Cum. Count**	**L**	**%**	**U**	**Cum. %**	**Count**	**Cum. Count**	**L**	**%**	**U**	**Cum. %**
v.often	364	364	67.7	71.8	75.5	71.8	70	70	12.6	15.7	19.4	15.7
sometimes	137	501	23.3	27.0	31.0	98.8	212	282	42.9	47.5	52.2	63.2
never	6	507	0.5	1.2	2.6	100.0	164	446	32.4	36.8	41.3	100.0

[73] The same notation is used in other tables below. After Smith (1997), the null hypotheses of equal proportions is accepted when a confidence interval for either proportion overlaps the other proportion; otherwise the hypothesis is rejected.

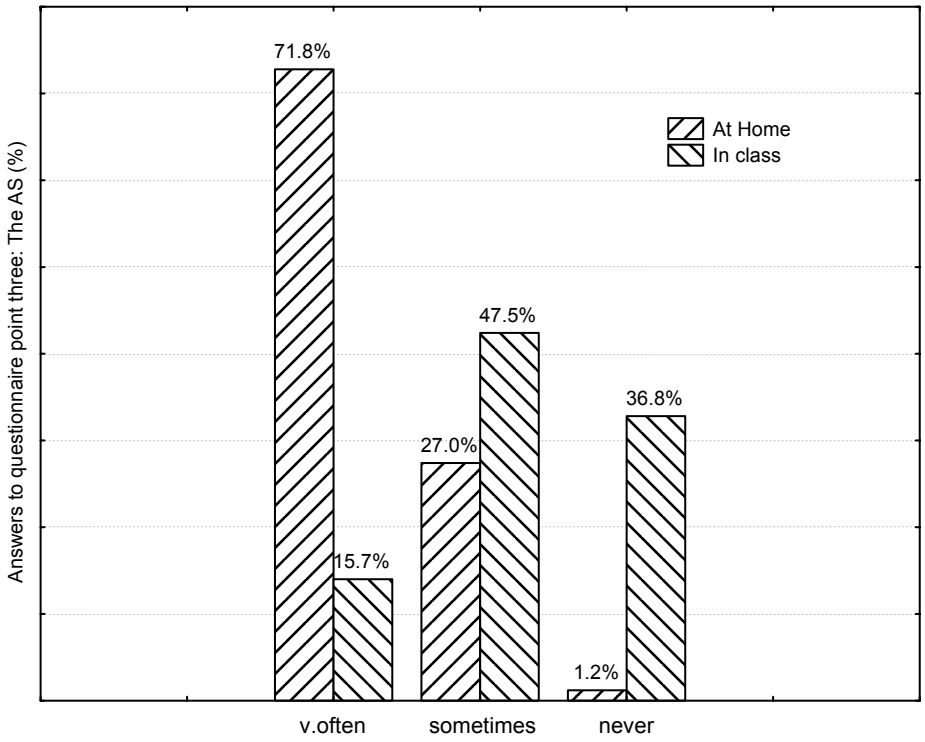

Figure 16. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS)

The table and figure show that when working at home, more than 70 percent of the AS very often used pedagogical dictionaries of English, and over one fourth – from time to time. Only six students never consulted such dictionaries at home. Around half of the AS who expressed their opinion on dictionary use at the university, in turn, stated that they were involved in dictionary consultation in class only sometimes. Over one third of the AS never had such a task. The proportion of those who often had to refer to dictionaries in class was over twice lower. The mutually exclusive confidence intervals around the corresponding percentages for the two situational contexts of usage (*at home, in class*) show that the differences between the percentages were always significant, and ranged from around 56 to 20 percentage points (for *very often* and *sometimes*, respectively). In general, the AS referred to dictionaries most often at home, and university courses proved much less conducive to even occasional dictionary consultation.

Table 38 makes it possible to see whether there was a relationship between the frequencies of dictionary use by the AS in both investigated contexts. To conduct such an analysis, only the cases where a subject answered both questions (A and B) could be crosstabulated.[74] Since, as pointed out above, as few as six AS did not use dictionaries at home, the data on these subjects were ignored.[75] Apart from the Chi-square, Table 38 shows the obtained value of the Spearman rank correlation coefficient R.[76] To facilitate interpretation, the data subjected to statistical analyses are shown graphically in Figure 17.

Table 38. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): Crosstabulation

	At home	**In class**			**Row**
		v.often	**sometimes**	**never**	
Count	v.often	66	148	107	321
Column Percent		95.7%	71.2%	65.6%	
Row Percent		20.6%	46.1%	33.3%	
Total Percent		15.0%	33.6%	24.3%	73.0%
Count	sometimes	3	60	56	119
Column Percent		4.3%	28.8%	34.4%	
Row Percent		2.5%	50.4%	47.1%	
Total Percent		0.7%	13.6%	12.7%	27.0%
Count	all	69	208	163	440
Total Percent		15.7%	47.3%	37.0%	
df=2; alpha=0.05, Chi $_{critical}$=5.991; p=0.00, Chi $_{observed}$= 22.773 Spearman Rank R=0.19, t=4.11, p=0.00					

[74] Crosstabulation makes it possible to analyze the frequencies of observations which belong to specific combinations of categories on more than one variable. In any similar analysis below, failure to supply information on one of the crosstabulated variables results in exclusion from the investigation.

[75] The following counts were obtained for the students: 1 (*v.often in class*), 4 (*sometimes in class*) and 1 (*never in class*), the expected frequencies being only 0.9, 2.9 and 2.2, respectively.

[76] The Spearman R statistic is the most appropriate since the subjects' answers in point three are measured on an ordinal scale. This scale of measurement represents the ranks of values and gives information about the relationship between them only in terms of whether they are higher or lower than other values, but not in terms of how much higher or lower they are, e.g., *poor – fair – good – excellent* (Glass – Stanley 1970: 8-10, Hatch – Farhady 1982: 13-14). This scale justifies the use of Spearman R also in the analysis of the data obtained from other questionnaire points.

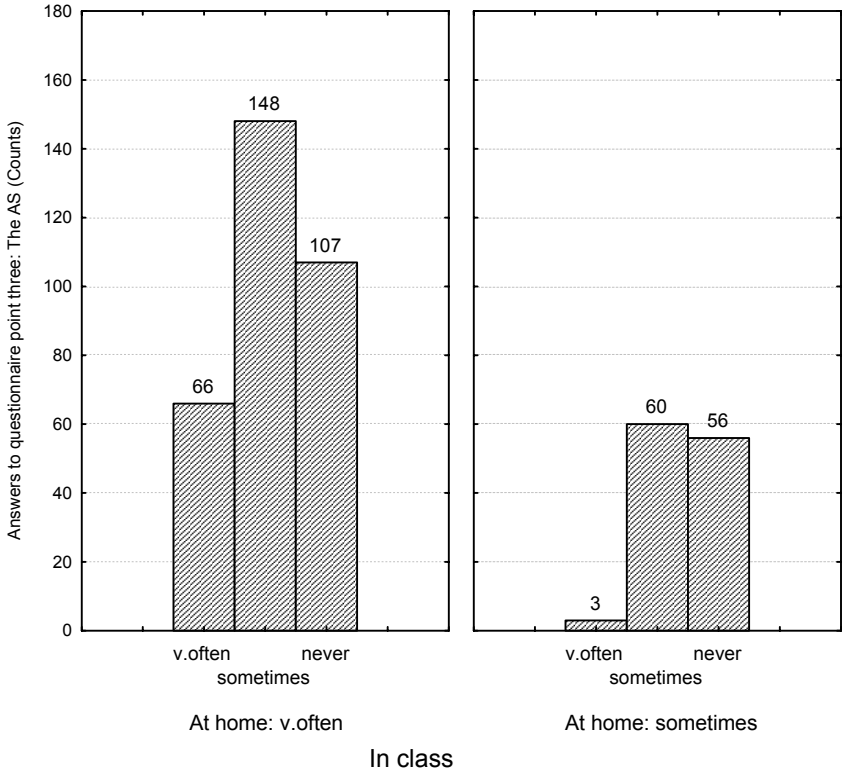

Figure 17. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): At home x In class (categorized histogram)

The Chi-square value is statistically significant and indicates that the frequencies of referring to pedagogical dictionaries of English by the AS at home and in class are related. However, the value of the Spearman rank correlation coefficient (R=0.19) and the probability level (p=0.00) imply a statistically significant and positive, though weak correlation between the frequencies of dictionary consultation in these two settings. More specifically, the row percentages make it clear that around half of the AS who very frequently consulted dictionaries at home sometimes referred to them in class. Yet, only one fifth of them very often consulted dictionaries during courses, and around one third did not use dictionaries in class at all. When dictionary consultation at home was occasional, it was usually either occasional or nonexistent in class.

Although, in general, advanced learners are autonomous and it is only natural that they refer to dictionaries when working on their own outside

any institutional setting, it might be interesting to read the above data also in a different way to find out how dictionary use at home depends on its consultation in class. To find an answer, the column percentages in Table 38 are paid attention to. Additionally, the other view on the data is illustrated graphically in Figure 18.

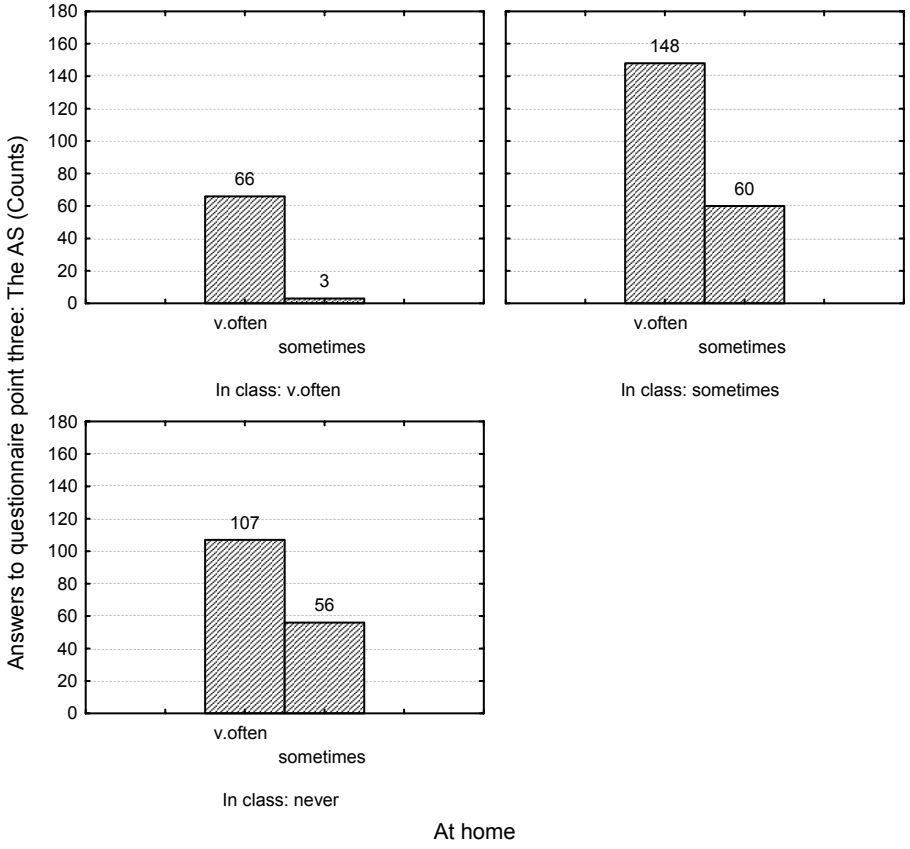

Figure 18. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (AS): In class x At home (categorized histogram)

As can be seen, almost all the subjects who very frequently consulted dictionaries in class referred to them as often at home. When in-class dictionary use was occasional, over 70 percent of the AS very often used dictionaries at home, and around one third – sometimes. Yet, when dictionary use was not part of university courses, about 65 percent of the AS routinely checked dictionaries at home. This might be taken to indicate that more frequent reference to dictionaries in class encourages more fre-

quent recourse to them at home as well. Nonetheless, it should not be forgotten that very frequent in-class dictionary consultation was reported by only around 16 percent of the AS whose answers are taken into consideration in the present analysis.

2.3.2.3.3. Intermediate subjects

Table 39 and Figure 19 present details on the IS' answers given in point three of the questionnaire.

Table 39. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS)

Category	A (At home)						B (In class)					
	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %
v.often	63	63	14.1	17.7	22.1	17.7	27	27	5.7	8.3	11.7	8.3
sometimes	177	240	44.7	49.9	55.0	67.6	156	183	42.4	47.7	53.1	56.0
never	115	355	27.7	32.4	37.4	100.0	144	327	38.8	44.0	49.5	100.0

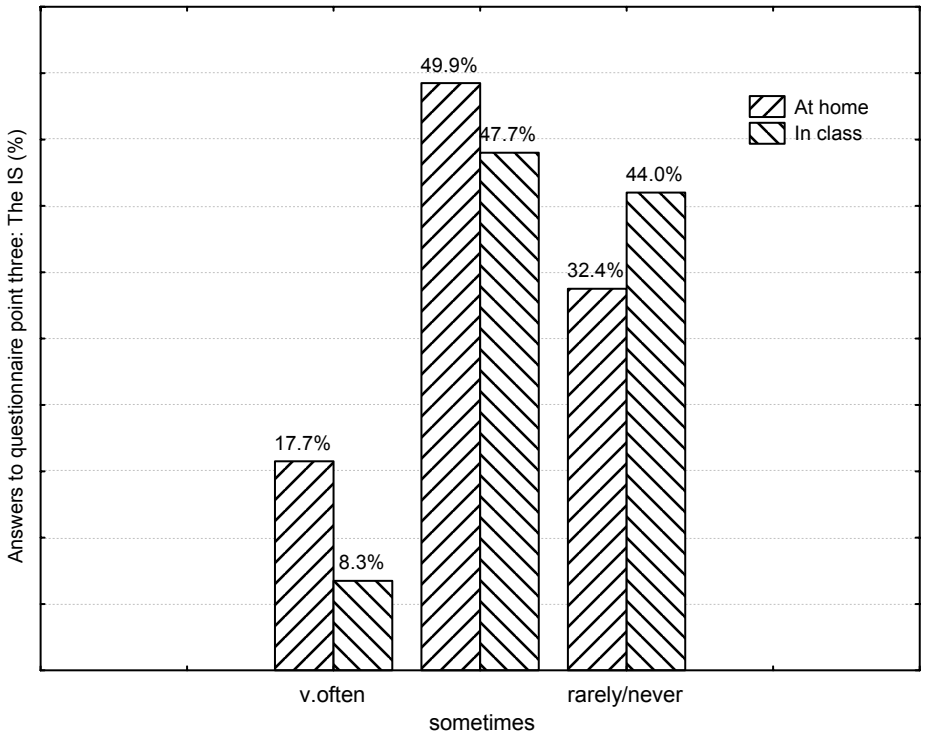

Figure 19. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS)

The data indicate that about half of the IS who expressed their opinion on the frequency of dictionary use admitted that they sometimes consulted monolingual dictionaries of English at home. A similar proportion of the subjects claimed that they occasionally checked such dictionaries in class. Unfortunately, a high percentage confessed to never using them either at home (one third) or at school (two fifths). Besides, not even one tenth referred to them quite often in class. Yet, about one fifth of the IS whose answers were analyzed described their dictionary consultation at home as very frequent. The inspection of confidence intervals around the frequencies of dictionary use at home and in class shows that the proportions were comparable only for the option *sometimes*, for which the difference between the frequencies approximates two percentage points. For the other frequency categories (*very often, never*), the intervals are mutually exclusive; the proportions differ by around ten percentage points.

The data in Table 40, illustrated graphically in Figure 20, make it possible to find out whether the frequencies of dictionary use by the IS at home and in class were independent.

Table 40. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): Crosstabulation

	At home	**In class**			**Row**
		v.often	**sometimes**	**never**	
Count	v.often	11	29	12	52
Column Percent		45.8%	19.3%	8.3%	
Row Percent		21.2%	55.8%	23.1%	
Total Percent		3.5%	9.1%	3.8%	16.4%
Count	sometimes	10	86	59	155
Column Percent		41.7%	57.3%	41.0%	
Row Percent		6.5%	55.5%	38.1%	
Total Percent		3.1%	27.0%	18.6%	48.7%
Count	never	3	35	73	111
Column Percent		12.5%	23.3%	50.7%	
Row Percent		2.7%	31.5%	65.8%	
Total Percent		0.9%	11.0%	23.0%	34.9%
Count	all	24	150	144	318
Total Percent		7.6%	47.2%	45.3%	
df=4; alpha=0.05, Chi $_{critical}$= 9.488; p=0.00, Chi $_{observed}$= 43.026 Spearman Rank R=0.34, t=6.42, p=0.00					

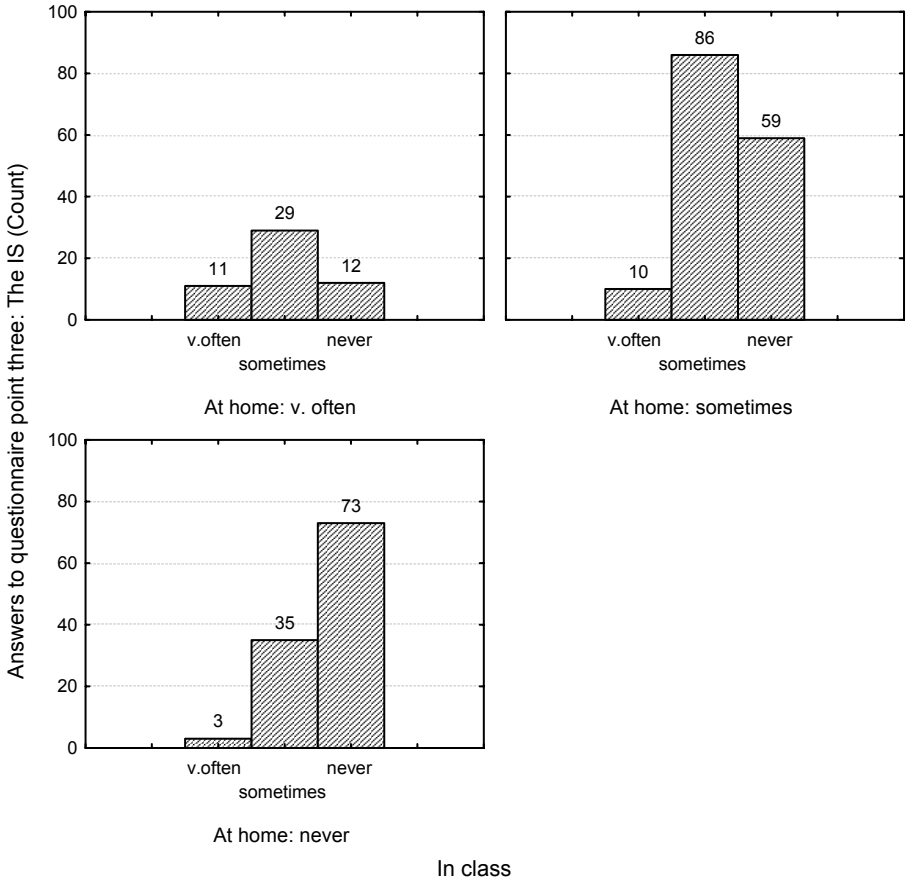

Figure 20. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): At home x In class (categorized histogram)

The results of the Chi-square test indicate that there is a relationship between the frequencies of IS' reference to pedagogical dictionaries of English in the investigated situational contexts. The analysis of correlation suggests a statistically significant and direct, but not very strong correlation between the frequencies in the two conditions. Yet, the correlation (R=0.34, p=0.00) is stronger than in the more advanced group.[77] The row percentages reveal that the majority (over three fifths) of the IS who hardly ever used pedagogical dictionaries at home did not consult them at school, either; only one third of them sometimes referred to such diction-

[77] Compare Table 38.

aries in class. Most IS consulting dictionaries at home from time to time did so comparably often at school, but about two fifths of them still never used dictionaries in class. When the IS described reference to dictionaries at home as very frequent, in turn, over half of them consulted dictionaries in class only sometimes, and around one fifth – either very often or never.

To see how dictionary consultation at home is affected by in-class dictionary use, attention is paid to the column percentages in Table 40. Figure 21 illustrates the relevant counts graphically.

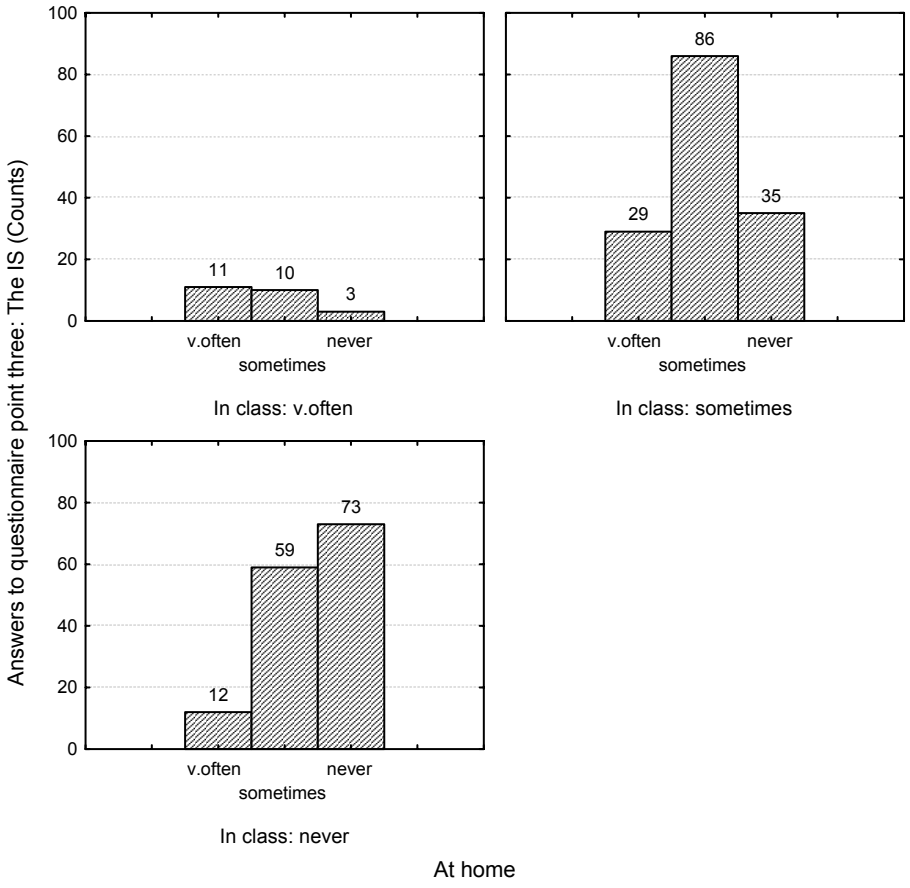

Figure 21. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context (IS): In class x At home (categorized histogram)

It transpires that half of the subjects who did not use dictionaries in class did not refer to them at home, either, but the other half did – either some-

times (two fifths) or often (almost one tenth). The majority (about three fifths) of the IS consulting dictionaries in class from time to time used them comparably often at home. Yet, around one fourth of them did not resort to dictionaries when working at home, while almost one fifth needed them very often. About 90 percent of the IS who very frequently used dictionaries in class referred to them at home either very often as well (over 45 percent) or from time to time (about two fifths). Interestingly, only one in eight students used to consulting dictionaries at school did not need them at home.[78]

The analysis of the data obtained from point three of the questionnaire reveals that the relationship between dictionary use at home and in class, although not very strong, was in both groups positive. The fact that the correlation was stronger for the intermediate subjects suggests that such learners are more likely to transfer their reference habits from one location to the other. Thus, if encouraged to use dictionaries in class (at home), they could also refer to them at home (in class). By the same token, no motivation for using dictionaries in one setting could contribute to their reluctance to benefit from them in the other one as well. This might be seen as an argument for making dictionary activities part of language classes as well as home assignments. The weak correlation in the advanced group might follow from the fact that university students are more autonomous and can limit dictionary consultation in class to answering the most burning questions. The bulk of work connected with studying English, inextricably linked with using dictionaries, is most probably done at home.

2.3.2.3.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

To close the analysis, the data on reference to dictionaries at home and in class at both proficiency levels are juxtaposed in Table 41 and presented graphically in Figure 22.

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[78] It should be remembered, however, that, as shown in Table 40, the number of students who regularly used dictionaries at school was very small. Thus, caution is required when making inferences on this basis.

Table 41. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context and proficiency level

Setting	Frequency	P1 (AS)	P2 (IS)	Z Test	p
A: At home	v.often	71.8	17.7	15.621	0.00*
	sometimes	27.0	49.9	-6.857	0.00*
	never	1.2	32.4	-12.983	0.00*
B: In class	v.often	15.7	8.3	3.084	0.00*
	sometimes	47.5	47.7	-0.048	0.96
	never	36.8	44.0	-2.038	0.04*

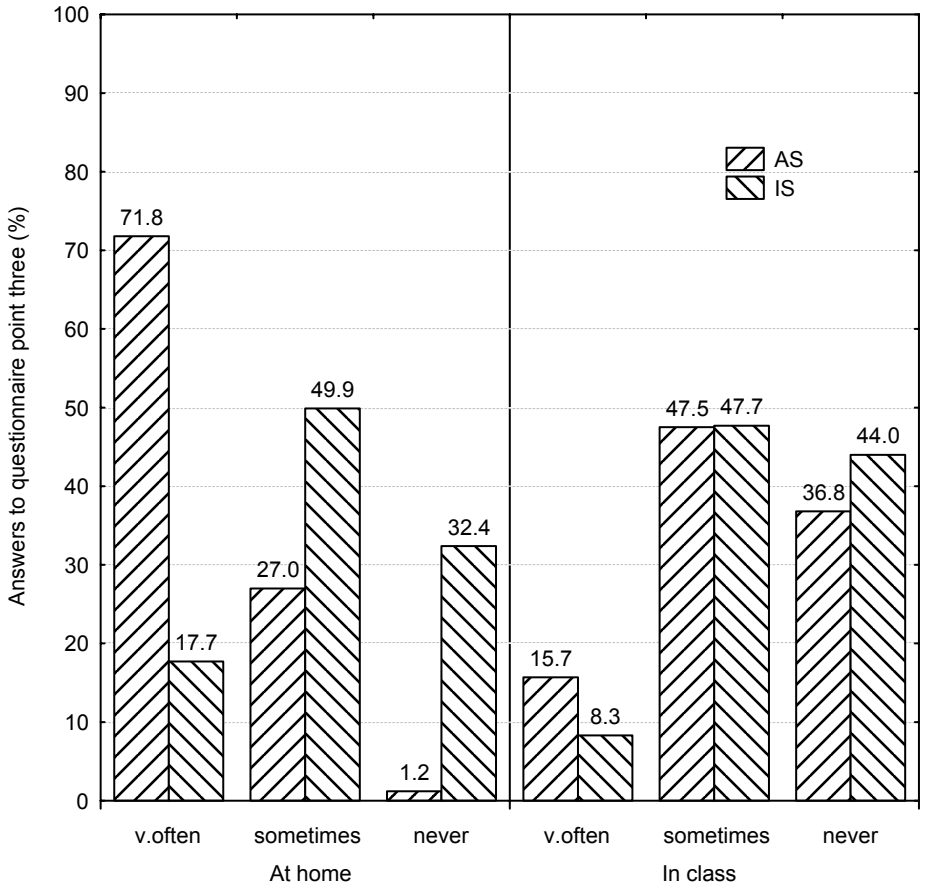

Figure 22. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context and proficiency level

The results of the Z test show that for the option *at home*, all the differences between the two proficiency groups were statistically significant. It transpires that the AS routinely used dictionaries at home (71.8%) four times as often as the IS (17.7%). By contrast, occasional dictionary use in this setting was about 80 percent more frequent among the IS (49.9%) than the AS (27.0%). It was also the IS who around 30 times more often than the AS admitted to never taking advantage of dictionaries when working at home. In an institutional setting, in turn, regular reference to dictionaries characterized the AS (15.7%) rather than the IS (8.3%); the statistically significant difference between the two groups amounted to 90 percent. Conversely, the IS confessed that they had never consulted dictionaries in class (44.0%) 20 percent more often than the AS (36.8%), and the difference was statistically significant as well. Comparable proportions of subjects in the two groups (around half) acknowledged occasional dictionary use in class. Thus, it may be concluded that the higher level of proficiency is conducive to frequent dictionary use, in both domestic and educational settings.

2.3.2.4. Dictionary consultation and parts of speech

2.3.2.4.1. An overview

In the analysis of the information obtained from the next points of the questionnaire, attention is paid only to the answers of those subjects who reported using pedagogical dictionaries in at least one context specified in point three.[79] Table 42 presents the data collected from point four of the questionnaire, where the subjects were requested to determine whether, in non-experimental conditions, nouns or verbs motivated their dictionary consultation more often (4A, *Reference*), and for which part of speech (nouns or verbs) the consultation was more successful (4B, *Success*). In the table, *ND* stands for *no difference* caused by these grammatical categories in the investigated respects. Details on the computation of the Chi-square test are given in Table B.4 in the appendix.

[79] One student in the advanced group and 88 subjects at the intermediate level continued filling out the questionnaire despite negative or no answers in point three. Their responses are not considered below.

Table 42. Reference to dictionaries and success in dictionary consultation: Nouns and verbs

	4A (Reference)				**4B (Success)**			
	N>V	**ND**	**V>N**	**sum**	**N>V**	**ND**	**V>N**	**sum**
AS								
NCA	16	60	7	83	14	54	15	83
NCM	11	61	12	84	22	52	10	84
NC0	7	60	14	81	20	54	11	85
VCA	17	62	10	89	17	50	18	85
VCM	15	62	6	83	15	55	12	82
VC0	19	58	7	84	13	51	20	84
Total	85	363	56	504	101	316	86	503
	df=10; alpha=0.05, $Chi_{crit.}$=18.307; p=0.26, $Chi_{obs.}$=12.319				df=10; alpha=0.05, $Chi_{crit.}$=18.307; p=0.47, $Chi_{obs.}$=9.667			
IS								
NCA	4	34	10	48	12	30	6	48
NCM	3	35	11	49	14	33	6	53
NC0	7	33	10	50	8	33	6	47
VCA	9	35	4	48	8	30	8	46
VCM	3	38	6	47	6	38	2	46
VC0	5	32	10	47	9	35	4	48
Total	31	207	51	289	57	199	32	288
	df=10; alpha=0.05, $Chi_{crit.}$=18.307; p=0.38, $Chi_{obs.}$=10.727				df=10; alpha=0.05, $Chi_{crit.}$=18.307; p=0.50, $Chi_{obs.}$=9.381			

The results of the Chi-square test indicate that the subjects' dictionary using habits concerning the frequency of checking nouns and verbs in pedagogical dictionaries of English (point 4A) were comparable in all the experimental conditions in the study. More importantly, the declared effectiveness of the look-ups in question (point 4B) proved to be comparable in all the tests as well. If it had not been the case and the proportions of subjects more skilful at looking up nouns or verbs had been different across the conditions, the divergences could have been a reason for some variance in test scores. The Chi-square test reveals that the investigated variable could not have thus influenced the results from the study and justifies neglecting dictionary types in further analysis of the data obtained from point four.

2.3.2.4.2. Advanced subjects

Table 43 and Figure 23 show how often reference to dictionaries by the AS was motivated by nouns and verbs and how the subjects assessed the effectiveness of the search.

Table 43. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (AS)

Category	4A (Reference)						4B (Success)					
	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %
N>V	85	85	13.8	16.9	20.4	16.87	101	101	16.8	20.1	23.8	20.08
ND	363	448	67.9	72.0	75.8	88.89	316	417	58.5	62.8	66.9	82.90
V>N	56	504	8.7	11.1	14.2	100.00	86	503	14.1	17.1	20.6	100.00

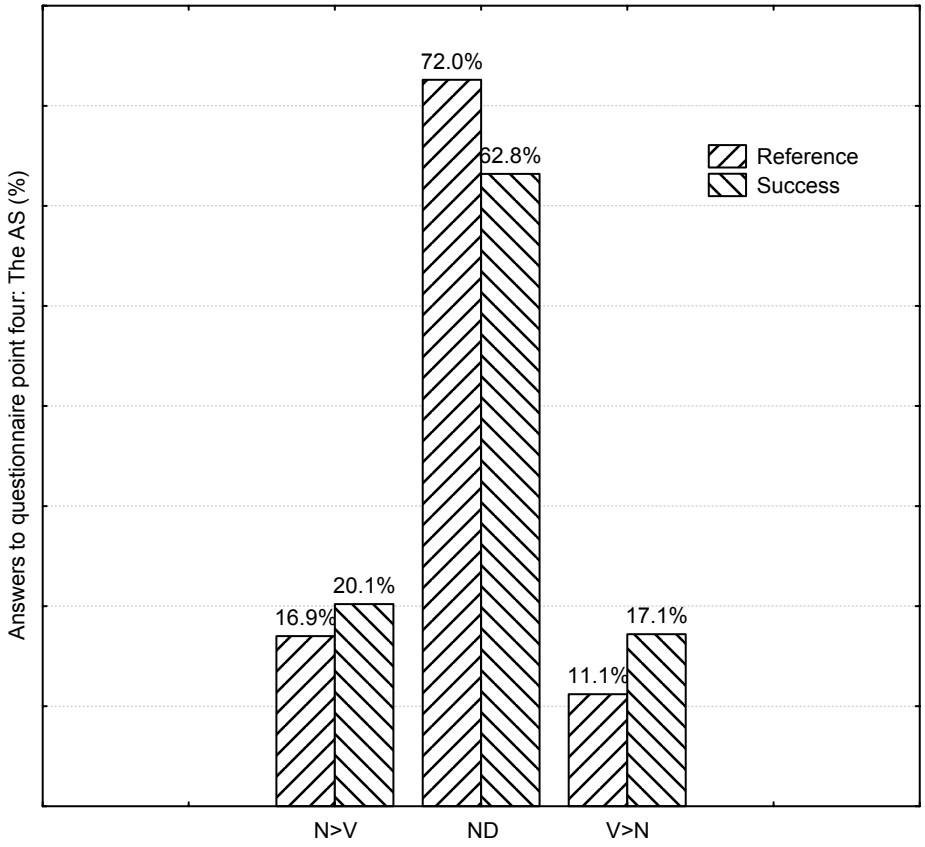

Figure 23. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (AS)

The data reveal that about three fourths of the AS who expressed their opinion in point 4A could not see any difference in the frequency of looking up English nouns and verbs in dictionaries. While almost 17 percent of the AS stated that they needed dictionaries more often to check nouns than verbs, over one tenth were of the opinion that the reverse was true. Nonetheless, confidence intervals suggest that the difference between the proportions was significant; among the AS who considered their dictionary consultation to be affected by the grammatical category of headwords, more subjects needed help with nouns than verbs, rather than the other way around.

Over three fifths of the subjects who assessed their look-ups of nouns and verbs declared the two parts of speech had no bearing on the effectiveness of the searches. Around one fifth of the AS stated that looking up nouns was more successful than checking verbs, but almost as many were of a different opinion and considered verb-motivated searches more successful than those prompted by nouns. Confidence intervals show that there was indeed no significant difference between the two proportions.

Table 44 and Figure 24 make it possible to identify relations between the frequency of dictionary consultation by part of speech and the perceived effectiveness of the look-ups in the group of the AS.

Table 44. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (AS): Crosstabulation

	Reference	**Success**			**Row**
		N>V	**ND**	**V>N**	
Count	N>V	20	34	31	85
Column Percent		19.8%	10.8%	36.0%	
Row Percent		23.5%	40.0%	36.5%	
Total Percent		4.0%	6.8%	6.2%	16.9%
Count	ND	57	256	49	362
Column Percent		56.4%	81.0%	57.0%	
Row Percent		15.7%	70.7%	13.5%	
Total Percent		11.3%	50.9%	9.7%	72.0%
Count	V>N	24	26	6	56
Column Percent		23.8%	8.2%	7.0%	
Row Percent		42.9%	46.4%	10.7%	
Total Percent		4.8%	5.2%	1.2%	11.1%
Count	All	101	316	86	503
Total Percent		20.1%	62.8%	17.1%	
df=4; alpha=0.05, Chi $_{critical}$= 9.488; p=0.00, Chi $_{observed}$= 54.074 Spearman Rank R=-0.18; t=-4.15, p=0.00					

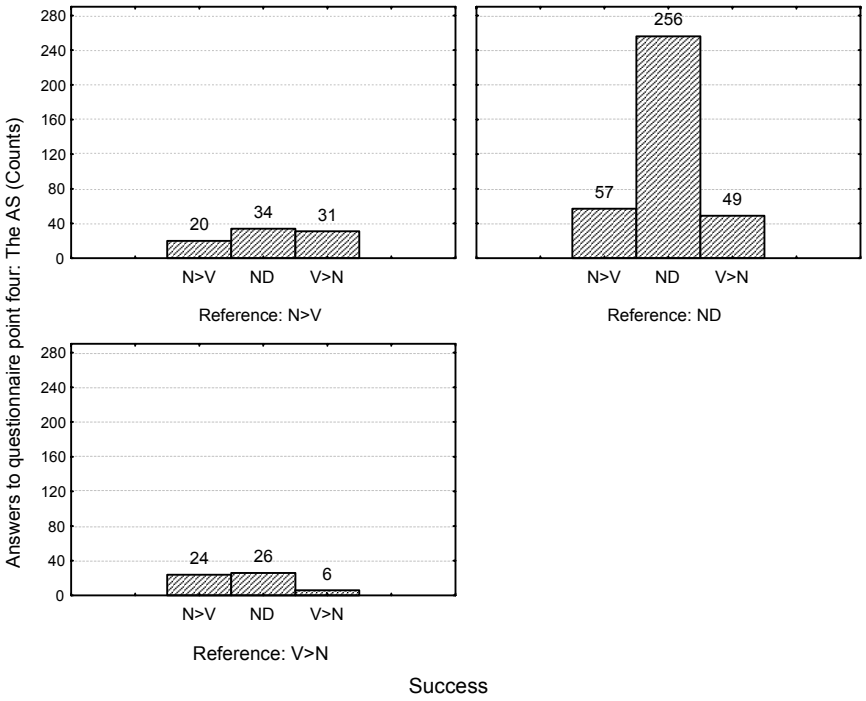

Figure 24. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (AS): Reference x Success (categorized histogram)

The Chi-square test suggests that the frequencies and effects of looking up both parts of speech are related. The correlation analysis indicates a statistically significant inverse correlation between them. The strength of the correlation was not great, as evidenced by the low value of the Spearman R coefficient (R= –0.18). The data reveal that the AS who looked up nouns more often than verbs found their noun searches the least satisfactory; the relevant row percentage shows that they bore fruit only in about one fourth of all cases (23.5%). Two fifths of the subjects in question saw no difference in the effectiveness of the searches motivated by the two parts of speech, and over one third considered information on verbs easier to find. Likewise, the responses of those who tended to look up verbs more often than nouns suggest that their dictionary consultation was four times less successful for verbs (around one tenth of all cases) than nouns (around two fifths of all cases). About half of the subjects in question found looking up verbs and nouns equally satisfactory. Finally, 70 percent of the AS who considered checking nouns and verbs compara-

bly frequent regarded it as comparably successful. About 16 percent of the remaining students in this group admitted that, even though they saw no difference in the frequency of looking up nouns and verbs, dictionary reference motivated by nouns was more effective. By contrast, almost as many subjects (about 14 percent) considered the needed information on verbs easier to retrieve from dictionaries.

2.3.2.4.3. Intermediate subjects

The data which make it possible to analyze the IS' responses given in questionnaire point four are shown in Table 45 and Figure 25.

Table 45. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (IS)

Category	4A (Reference)						4B (Success)					
	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %	Count	Cum. Count	L	%	U	Cum. %
N>V	31	31	7.7	10.7	14.8	10.7	57	57	15.6	19.8	24.8	19.8
ND	207	238	66.2	71.6	76.5	82.4	199	256	63.5	69.1	74.2	88.9
V>N	51	289	13.7	17.6	22.5	100.0	32	288	8.0	11.1	15.3	100.0

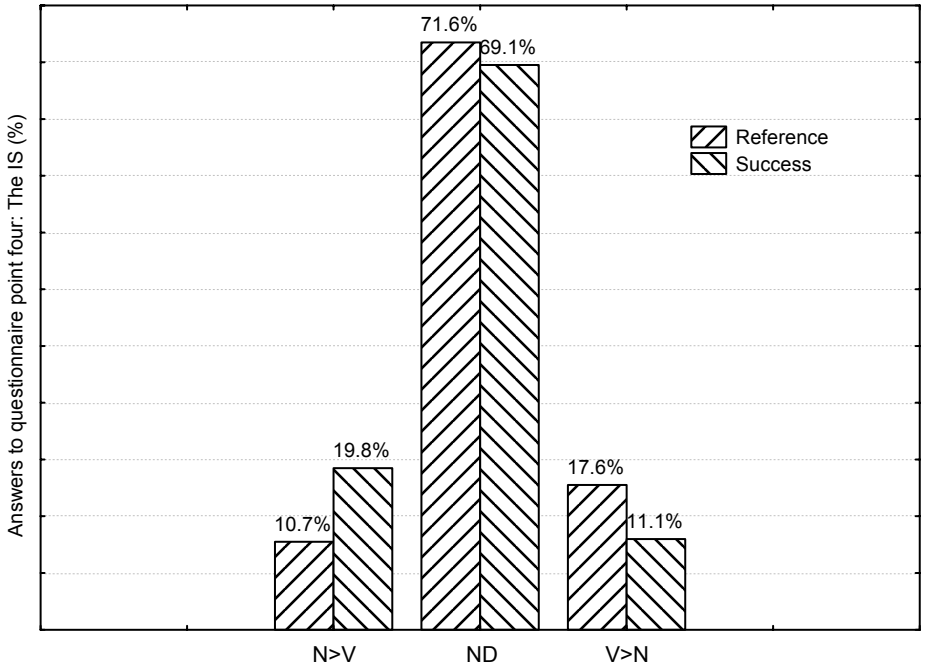

Figure 25. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech (IS)

As can be seen, over 70 percent of the IS who answered point 4A could see no difference in the frequency of looking up nouns and verbs in dictionaries of English. Over one tenth of the IS maintained that they looked up nouns more often than verbs, but for about 65 percent more students verbs were a better reason to refer to a dictionary than nouns. With respect to point 4B, about 70 percent of the IS who expressed their opinion assessed their noun- and verb-driven dictionary queries as comparably successful. Over one tenth of the IS claimed they succeeded more often when dealing with verbs than nouns, and about one fifth considered themselves more successful in checking nouns rather than verbs. Confidence intervals suggest that verbs were looked up significantly more often than nouns, but noun look-ups were found considerably more effective.

Table 46 and Figure 26 lend some deeper insight into the investigated relations.

Table 46. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (IS): Crosstabulation

	Reference	**Success**			**Row**
		N>V	**ND**	**V>N**	
Count	N>V	6	12	13	31
Column Percent		10.5%	6.0%	40.6%	
Row Percent		19.4%	38.7%	41.9%	
Total Percent		2.1%	4.2%	4.5%	10.8%
Count	ND	30	161	15	206
Column Percent		52.6%	80.9%	46.9%	
Row Percent		14.6%	78.2%	7.3%	
Total Percent		10.4%	55.9%	5.2%	71.5%
Count	V>N	21	26	4	51
Column Percent		36.8%	13.1%	12.5%	
Row Percent		41.2%	51.0%	7.8%	
Total Percent		7.3%	9.0%	1.4%	17.7%
Count	All	57	199	32	288
Total Percent		19.8%	69.1%	11.1%	
df=4; alpha=0.05, Chi $_{critical}$= 9.488; p=0.00, Chi $_{observed}$= 53.362 Spearman Rank R=-0.26, t=-4.61, p=0.00					

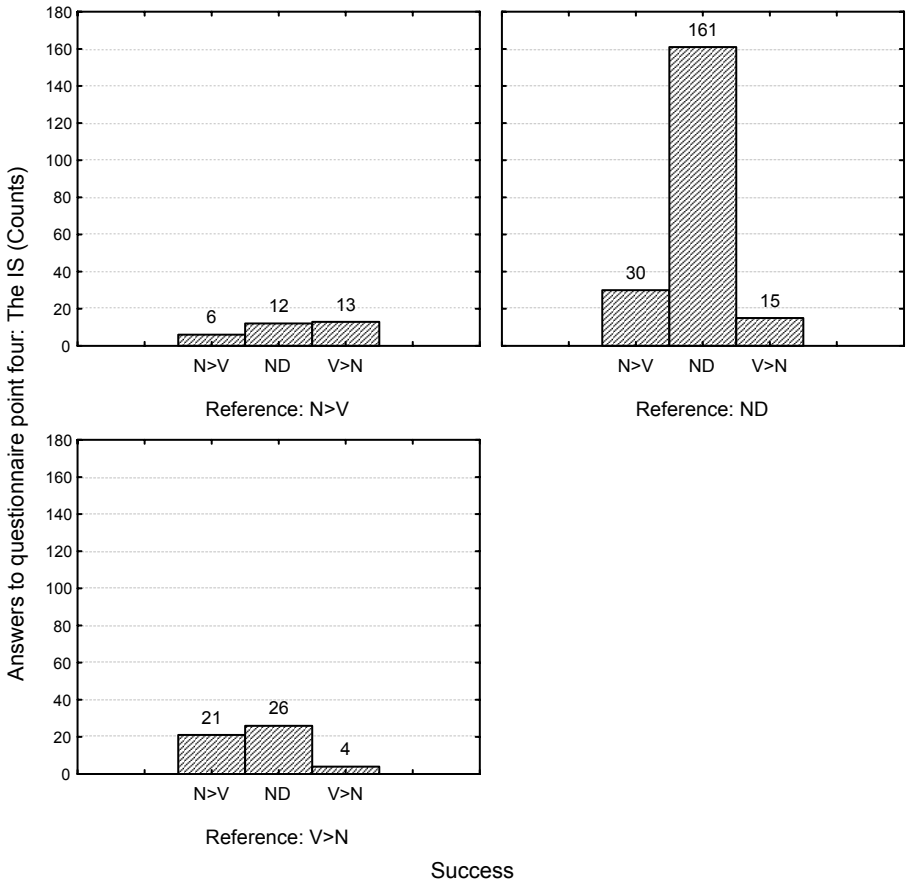

Figure 26. Dictionary consultation by part of speech (IS): Reference x Success (categorized histogram)

The Chi-square test reveals dependency between the analyzed variables. A statistically significant inverse correlation between the effects of looking up nouns and verbs and the frequency of the corresponding searches has been identified. The low and negative value of the Spearman R coefficient (R= –0.26) suggests that the correlation, although significant, is not strong. The row percentages in Table 46 reveal that the IS who claimed that they looked up nouns more often than verbs succeeded least often, only in about one fifth of the cases, in checking nouns, while about twice as often they were either satisfied with checking verbs or saw no difference in the effects of dictionary use motivated by the two parts of speech.

Likewise, those who needed information on verbs rather than nouns were least often (in about eight percent of all cases) successful in looking up verbs, but considered noun lookups about five times more effective. Over half of the IS in question found the results of dictionary consultation similar for the two parts of speech. Finally, when verbs and nouns were considered equally important reasons for referring to dictionaries, the effects of dictionary consultation were seen as comparably good in about four fifths of such cases. Yet, nouns were then still declared to lead to success twice as often (about 15 percent) as verbs (over seven percent).

2.3.2.4.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

The discussion of point four of the questionnaire closes with an analysis of the influence of proficiency level on the subjects' reference to dictionaries for information concerning nouns and verbs as well as on their sense of achievement in this respect. The pertinent data together with the results of the Z test are shown in Table 47. Additionally, the percentages are illustrated in Figure 27.[80]

Table 47. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech and proficiency level

	Answer	**P1 (AS)**	**P2 (IS)**	**Z Test**	**p**
4A Reference	N>V	16.9	10.7	2.354	0.02*
	ND	72.0	71.6	0.120	0.90
	V>N	11.1	17.7	-2.593	0.01*
4B Success	N>V	20.1	19.8	0.097	0.92
	ND	62.8	69.1	-1.781	0.07
	V>N	17.1	11.1	2.274	0.02*

[80] For counts see Table 43 and Table 45.

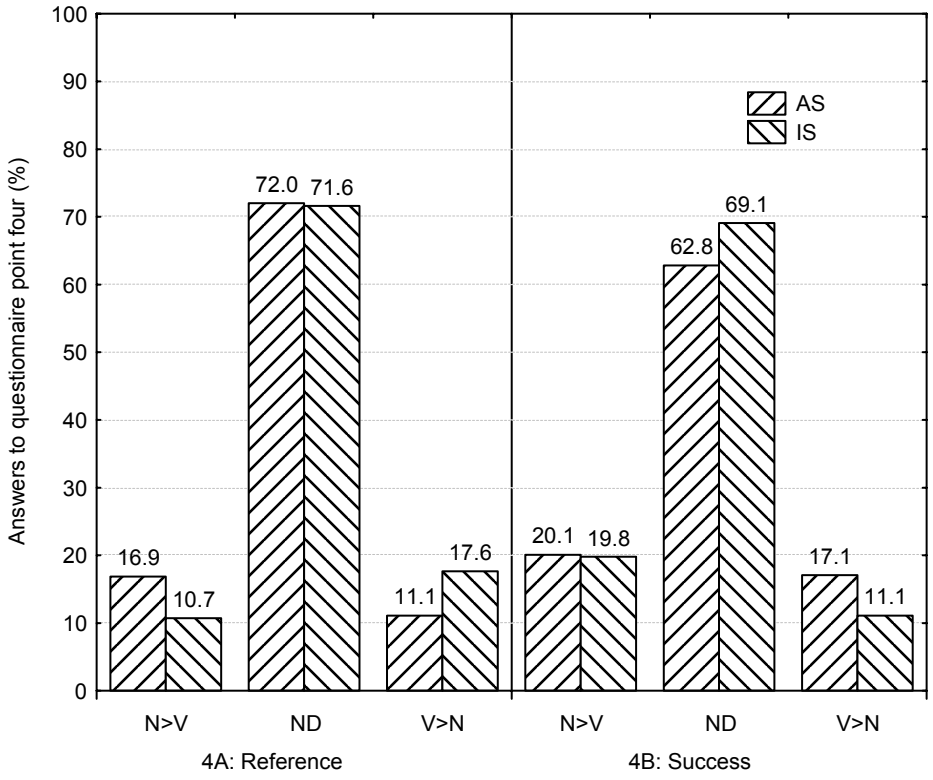

Figure 27. Reference to dictionaries and its evaluation by part of speech and proficiency level

The AS declared that they used dictionaries to find information on nouns rather than verbs over half as often again as the IS. Conversely, verbs instead of nouns were looked up by the AS only slightly over 60 percent as often as by the IS. In both cases the difference was statistically significant at alpha=0.05, and the percentages compared ranged from over 10 to about 17. In the groups, comparable proportion of students (over 70 percent) saw no difference in the frequency of reference to dictionaries depending on the part of speech. With respect to the results of dictionary consultation, a significant difference emerges only when the subjects claimed to be more successful when coping with verbs than nouns. Then, the effects satisfied the AS (17.1%) over half as much again as the IS (11.1%). The level of proficiency proved to have no significance when the part of speech was seen as unimportant for the results of dictionary use as well as when noun searches were considered more successful.

Overall, the analysis of the data from point four of the questionnaire indicates that reference needs concerning nouns and verbs as well as skills needed to extract the relevant information from noun and verb entries were comparable among the subjects dealing with different tests. Thus, the subjects' reference habits or competence in checking nouns and verbs in pedagogical dictionaries of English could not have accounted for any inter-test differences observed in the study. Besides, the vast majority of the subjects neither recognized the need to consult nouns or verb entries more often nor considered themselves more successful in looking up any part of speech.[81]

It might be surprising that the views on the results of dictionary use were largely comparable at both proficiency levels. After all, it might be expected that the more advanced dictionary users get, the more successful they (claim to) become in consulting dictionaries, regardless of the grammatical category of headwords.[82] Furthermore, in both groups, there was a weak and negative correlation between the frequency and results of looking up a part of speech, but the effect was stronger among the intermediate students. Thus, irrespective of the level of proficiency, it cannot be claimed that the more frequently a part of speech motivates dictionary search, the more often the search ends in success, or, what follows, the more it contributes to developing reference skills. Quite the reverse, it transpires that success in using dictionaries to find information on nouns or verbs is negatively influenced by the frequency of looking them up.

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[81] Firstly, this regularity may result from the subjects' failure to differentiate between the two parts of speech. Distinguishing between word classes has been shown to be surprisingly difficult for dictionary users. For example, Nesi and Haill (2002: 282-283) report on 23 cases where look-up failure resulted from the misidentification of the grammatical category of the looked up words. Among them, there were eight instances where verbs were mistaken for nouns and seven where nouns were mistaken for verbs. In the study by Tseng (2009: 101), in turn, word class confusion accounted for 25 percent of the identified look-up errors. Secondly, the frequent choice of the category of no difference, known as a satisfying strategy, can also be explained by the fact that such midpoints, or quasi filters, are usually selected by many respondents to avoid making a real choice and undertaking a cognitive effort (Schaeffer – Presser 2003: 78-79, Dörnyei – Taguchi 2010: 28).

[82] As shown above, it was the case only when verbs were thought to lead to success more often than nouns. See Table 47.

2.3.2.5. Other reference needs and success in dictionary consultation

2.3.2.5.1. An overview

The following section presents an analysis of the subjects' needs (other than the relative frequency of looking up nouns and verbs) and the degree to which they were satisfied, as revealed by responses given in points five (A-G) and six (A-G) of the questionnaire, respectively. The following information types, the same in both questionnaire points under discussion, represented the considered reference needs: pronunciation (A), spelling (B), part of speech (C), meaning (D), use in sentences (i.e., syntax, E), situational context of use (i.e. style/register F) and synonyms/antonyms (G).

The questions in points five and six were formulated so as to avoid branching (or unfolding) whereby prompting judgment takes two steps: first asking about the direction (e.g., *are you satisfied or dissatisfied?* or: *do you use X or not?)* and then – about its extremity (e.g., *to what extent are you satisfied or dissatisfied?* or: *how often do you use X?*) (Lubian 2010: 6136). In this technique, also known as skip sequencing (Manski – Molinari 2008: 265), the answer to an opening question determines whether a respondent is asked certain subsequent questions. Meant to eliminate irrelevant questions and reduce the burden on informants, it can unfortunately confuse them and cause navigation errors of commission and omission. In the former, questions to be skipped are answered, whereas in the latter, questions to be answered are skipped (Redline et al. 2003: 403-404).

The errors in question can seriously aggravate data quality problems. Manski and Molinari (2008: 265) explain that if a respondent fails to answer the opening question, or answers it negatively, researchers typically consider the subsequently answered branched questions inapplicable. However, when they do apply, omission is compounded. Alternatively, a positive answer is attributed to the opening question, which in some cases is bound to be incorrect. Then, the following questions are taken for applicable, although in reality they are not, which exacerbates commission problems. Finally, respondents themselves might simply make an error answering the opening question. As a result, the next questions are omitted even though they should be answered, or the other way around – they are answered although they are irrelevant, thereby increasing omission and commission, respectively.

Considering these challenges, the authors point to three design options open at the stage of constructing a question: asking all respondents the question, asking only those who give a positive answer to an opening question (i.e. use branching), not asking anybody the question. Naturally, the three approaches yield data of different informative value. The first option is the most informative, the second can be less informative depending on the incidence of commission and omission, and the last one is uninformative at all (Manski – Molinari 2008: 265-266).

Unfortunately, respondents to written questionnaires are in general highly prone to commission and omission following branching instructions (Dillman – Christian 2005: 36).[83] In lexicographic studies, both error types have been attested in written surveys (e.g., Atkins – Varantola 1997, Dziemianko 2006). Since any decisions taken to deal with the apparently inevitable commission and omission in branching questions may seriously amplify data quality problems (Manski – Molinari 2008: 265), the first of the three possible options was applied to point six of the subjects' questionnaire, where success in finding certain information categories in learners' dictionaries had to be assessed . Thus, the subjects could respond to the question in point six irrespective of their answers in point five. However, to avoid logical inconsistencies, the question about the relative frequency of dictionary consultation for specific information types in point five was closed-ended and used three quantifiers: *często, czasami, prawie wcale* (*often, sometimes, hardly ever*). Importantly, *nigdy* (*never*), which, in contrast to *hardly ever*, would logically preclude proceeding to the corresponding categories (A-G) in point six was not employed.[84] For the sake of consistency, the same quantifiers were used in point six. The selection of three frequency categories was motivated by the need to strike "a compromise between the increasing discrimination potentially available with more categories and the limited capacity of respondents to make finer distinctions reliably and in similar ways" (Schaeffer – Presser 2003: 78).

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[83] The use of the computer to automatically control branching saves informants from making branching decisions or even reading branching instructions. Depending on the answers given, they can see only the questions which should be completed (Medlin – Roy – Chai 1999, Lozar Manfreda – Batagelj – Vehovar 2002).

[84] In fact, it might require the subjects to skip only certain categories in point six, which would no doubt further confuse many participants.

The tests used in the experiment are not considered below. For one thing, paying attention to them would largely complicate the analysis. For another, it would yield hardly any data useful in interpreting the results from the experiment. The information obtained from points five and six of the questionnaire was to give an insight into the hierarchy of the subjects' reference needs and the extent to which they are fulfilled, rather than account for the main findings from the study. A large part of the information was not even related to what the subjects' were expected to do in the test. In fact, only the data on dictionary consultation motivated by syntax, investigated in 5E and 6E, are relevant to the tasks in the experiment. Thus, the different tests are considered with respect to these two points only.

In the discussion below, a brief overview of the answers given in points five and six is followed by a more thorough exploration of the subjects' reference needs and success in dictionary use. Conclusions are drawn mainly on the basis of correlation and cluster analyses. Responses concerning syntax are then discussed in more detail, and it is only at this stage that test types are taken into account. The discussion revolves around each level of proficiency in turn.

2.3.2.5.2. Advanced subjects

2.3.2.5.2.1. Preliminaries

The answers supplied by the AS in points five and six are quantified in Table 48. To get a better insight into the subjects' needs and their fulfillment, indices were calculated. For each information category, the answers *often, sometimes* and *hardly ever* were assigned weights 3, 2 and 1, respectively. The products of the percentages computed for each answer and the corresponding weights were then summed up and divided by 100. The indices thus calculated are subsumed under the label *ind* in the table. In the last there columns, information categories are sorted by their indices. To facilitate interpretation, the indices are presented graphically in Figure 28.[85]

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[85] To illustrate, the index for pronunciation (5A) was computed in the following way: (55.7*3 + 34.5*2 + 9.8*1)/100 =2.46. In the analysis of the data from questionnaire points five and six, *pron*. stands for *pronunciation, st./reg.* for *style/register* and *syn./ant.* for *synonyms/antonyms*. Although in points 5G and 6G only words with similar and opposite meaning were mentioned, the broader term *semantic relations* is sometimes

Table 48. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS

Information category		Count				%				index	Sorted by index		
		often	sometimes	hardly ever	sum	often	sometimes	hardly ever	sum				
5A	pron.	278	172	49	499	55.7	34.5	9.8	100.0	2.46	5D	meaning	2.77
5B	spelling	217	258	25	500	43.4	51.6	5.0	100.0	2.38	5E	syntax	2.71
5C	POS	84	261	141	486	17.3	53.7	29.0	100.0	1.88	5F	st./reg.	2.48
5D	meaning	392	103	5	500	78.4	20.6	1.0	100.0	2.77	5A	pron.	2.46
5E	syntax	369	121	11	501	73.7	24.2	2.2	100.0	2.71	5B	spelling	2.38
5F	st./reg.	272	192	34	498	54.6	38.6	6.8	100.0	2.48	5G	syn./ant.	2.21
5G	syn./ant.	171	260	66	497	34.4	52.3	13.3	100.0	2.21	5C	POS	1.88
Sum		1783	1367	331	3481	51.2	39.3	9.5	100.0				
6A	pron.	410	47	14	471	87.0	10.0	3.0	100.0	2.84	6B	spelling	2.92
6B	spelling	448	24	6	478	93.7	5.0	1.3	100.0	2.92	6D	meaning	2.89
6C	POS	347	52	22	421	82.4	12.4	5.2	100.0	2.77	6A	pron.	2.84
6D	meaning	435	52	1	488	89.1	10.7	0.2	100.0	2.89	6C	POS	2.77
6E	syntax	360	127	2	489	73.6	26.0	0.4	100.0	2.73	6E	syntax	2.73
6F	st./reg.	252	212	13	477	52.8	44.4	2.7	100.0	2.50	6F	st./reg.	2.50
6G	syn./ant.	120	305	44	469	25.6	65.0	9.4	100.0	2.16	6G	syn./ant.	2.16
Sum		2372	819	102	3293	72.0	24.9	3.1	100.0				

used below for stylistic reasons. The terms *synonyms* and *antonyms* were purposely avoided in the questionnaire so as not to confuse the less advanced learners of English. See Appendix A.1 and section 2.1.1.

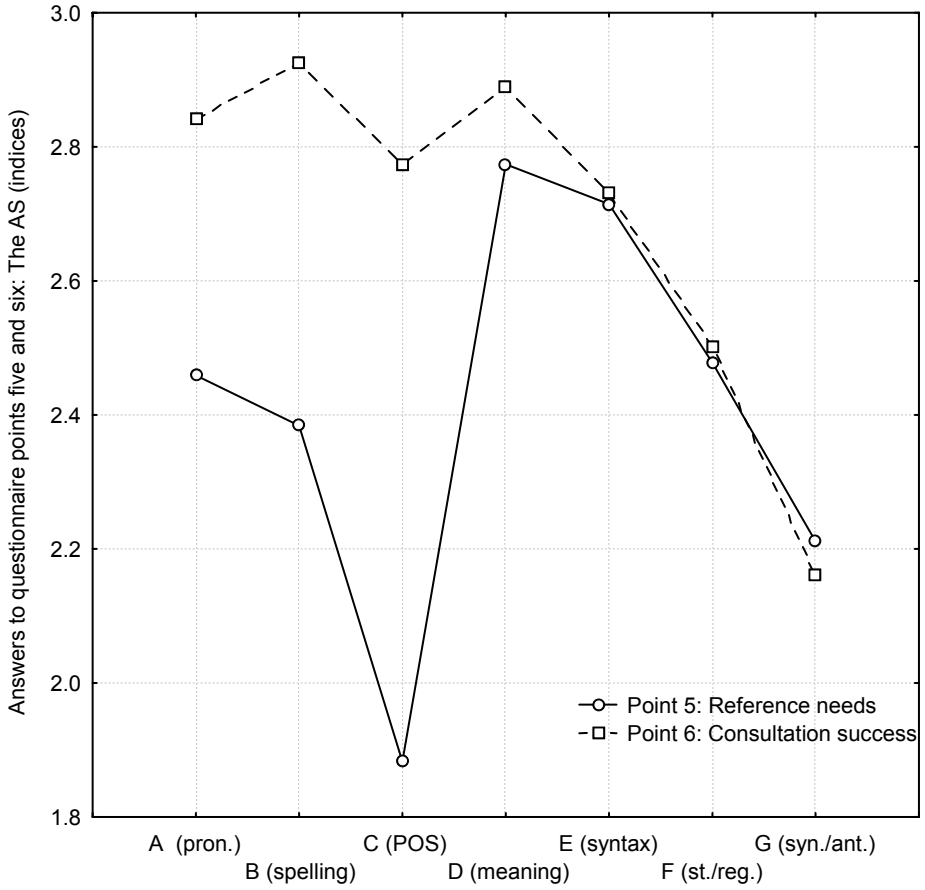


Figure 28. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS (indices)

The indices show that the AS referred to pedagogical dictionaries mainly to check the meaning of lexical items and their syntactic properties. For these information categories, the indices exceed the value of 2.7. Style/register, pronunciation and spelling were the next most frequent motives for consulting dictionaries in this group, with the corresponding indices around 2.4. Checking the semantic relations of a lexical item (2.21) and verifying its grammatical category (1.88) proved to be the least important reasons for using dictionaries by the AS.

With the exception of semantic relations, the index of success in finding given information is higher than that which describes the corresponding need. Apart from the aforementioned semantic relations, which

proved the most difficult for the AS to identify in pedagogical dictionaries (2.16), each of the other motives for dictionary consultation has a high index of at least 2.5. Spelling, meaning and pronunciation turned out to be the easiest to retrieve, with the relevant indices exceeding 2.8. Next come the grammatical category of headwords and syntactic information, for which the degree of success was also high, with index values over 2.7. It is only for style/register that the index did not go beyond 2.5.

2.3.2.5.2.2. Reference needs

The answers given by the subjects in point five make it possible to see whether there was an association between the AS' needs, that is, whether the users looking for some type of information were interested in some other information category as well. To assess the correlation, the values of the Spearman rank correlation coefficient R for answers in point five are collated in Table 49 and illustrated graphically in Figure 29. In the table (and other correlation matrices below), correlations significant at alpha=0.05 are marked with an asterisk (*).

Table 49. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The AS

Pair		**5A**	**5B**	**5C**	**5D**	**5E**	**5F**	**5G**
		pron.	**spelling**	**POS**	**meaning**	**syntax**	**st./reg.**	**syn./ant.**
5A	pron.	1.00	0.26*	0.19*	0.04	0.19*	0.15*	0.17*
5B	spelling	0.26*	1.00	0.32*	0.12*	0.12*	0.10*	0.15*
5C	POS	0.19*	0.32*	1.00	0.05	0.30*	0.34*	0.25*
5D	meaning	0.04	0.12*	0.05	1.00	0.21*	0.11*	0.10*
5E	syntax	0.19*	0.12*	0.30*	0.21*	1.00	0.54*	0.27*
5F	st./reg.	0.15*	0.10*	0.34*	0.11*	0.54*	1.00	0.29*
5G	syn./ant.	0.17*	0.15*	0.25*	0.10*	0.27*	0.29*	1.00

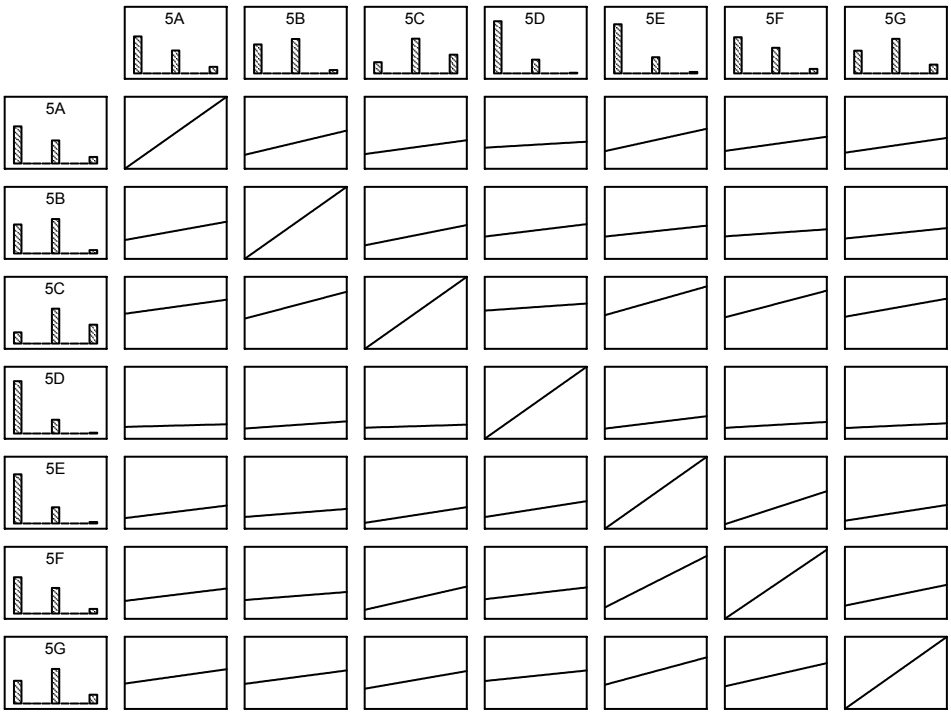


Figure 29. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The AS

The values of R in the table are positive but quite low, which means that when present, the relations between specific reference needs were fairly weak. A moderate relationship, but the strongest one of all the observed, obtained between syntax and style/register (R=0.54). This means that the AS who searched for information on the syntactic behavior of lexical items quite often wanted to find information on situational restrictions of their use. Correlation coefficients over 0.30 characterized three pairs of information types, all of which involved part of speech (with style/register, spelling and syntax in turn). It should also be noted that correlations were very close to zero and had no statistical significance only for two pairs of information categories, i.e., meaning and pronunciation (R=0.04) as well as meaning and part of speech (R=0.05).

Clustering is another statistical tool that can be used at this stage of data analysis. This method, exploratory in nature and concerned not so much with testing hypotheses as with building taxonomies, makes it pos-

sible to create clusters, or organize the observed data into meaningful structures. To find out whether the AS' reference needs concerning the investigated information categories combine into clusters, that is to examine the relative positioning of the reference needs with respect to one another, a cluster analysis was performed with Euclidean distances as a metric and Ward's method as a linkage rule.[86] The obtained results are presented graphically in the vertical icicle plot in Figure 30.

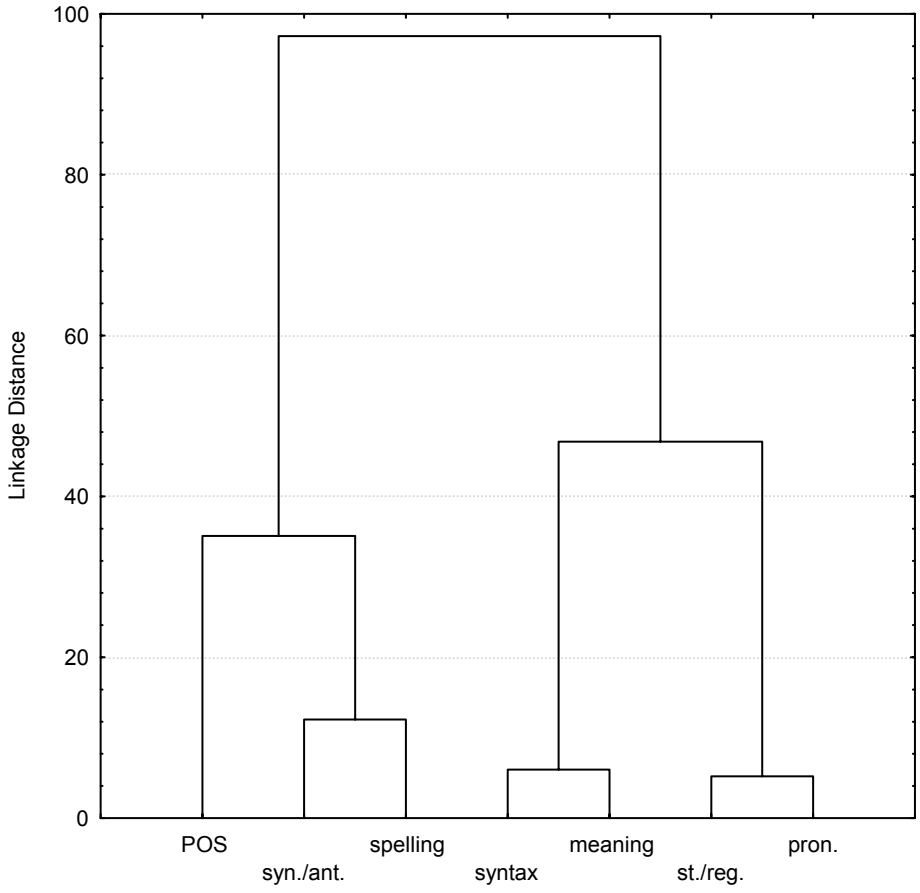


Figure 30. Dictionary users' needs in clusters: The AS

[86] In any other cluster analyses below, Euclidean distances and Ward's method are employed as well.

The figure reveals two distinct clusters: one between information on syntax, meaning, style/register and pronunciation, and the other between spelling, semantic relations and part of speech. Furthermore, in each of them there are first-level clusters. In the former, the first-level clusters are made up of syntax and meaning on the one hand, and style/register and pronunciation on the other. Each dyad is formed at the approximate linkage distance of 6, and they combine into a tetrad about eight times further (at 48). In the latter, in turn, the first level cluster is composed of spelling and semantic relations. The need to establish the grammatical category of headwords is more independent, since it joins the dyad in question at the linkage distance of approximately 36, which is about three times the distance between semantic relations and spelling (i.e. 12). The resulting triad it quite remote from the aforementioned tetrad; they combine only at the distance of 96.

The hierarchical tree in the icicle plot makes it possible to go beyond the simple conclusion, drawn above, that the AS need dictionaries mainly to check meaning and syntax, and use them least often to establish the grammatical category of headwords. As the two first-level dyads (involving meaning and syntax on the one hand, and style/register with pronunciation on the other) are joined, all the four information categories can be seen as core reference needs of the AS. Besides, the analysis suggests that there are three more peripheral reference needs as well, among which spelling and semantic relations are roughly equally important for the AS. Establishing the grammatical category of headwords, the third fringe reference need, is of much less interest to the dictionary users than the rest.

2.3.2.5.2.3. Success in dictionary consultation

The data obtained from point six of the questionnaire raise the question of possible relationships between the rates of success in identifying the investigated information types. To see whether the subjects who succeeded in finding one information category had good results in retrieving some other information type as well, pertinent correlation coefficients are presented in Table 50 and Figure 31.

Table 50. Correlation between consultation success rates: The AS

Pair		6A	6B	6C	6D	6E	6F	6G
		pron.	**spelling**	**POS**	**meaning**	**syntax**	**st./reg.**	**syn./ant.**
6A	pron.	1.00	0.47*	0.38*	0.09*	0.21*	0.21*	0.18*
6B	spelling	0.47*	1.00	0.44*	0.28*	0.17*	0.19*	0.10*
6C	POS	0.38*	0.44*	1.00	0.18*	0.19*	0.25*	0.17*
6D	meaning	0.09*	0.28*	0.18*	1.00	0.20*	0.12*	0.13*
6E	syntax	0.21*	0.17*	0.19*	0.20*	1.00	0.50*	0.27*
6F	st./reg.	0.21*	0.19*	0.25*	0.12*	0.50*	1.00	0.36*
6G	syn./ant.	0.18*	0.10*	0.17*	0.13*	0.27*	0.36*	1.00

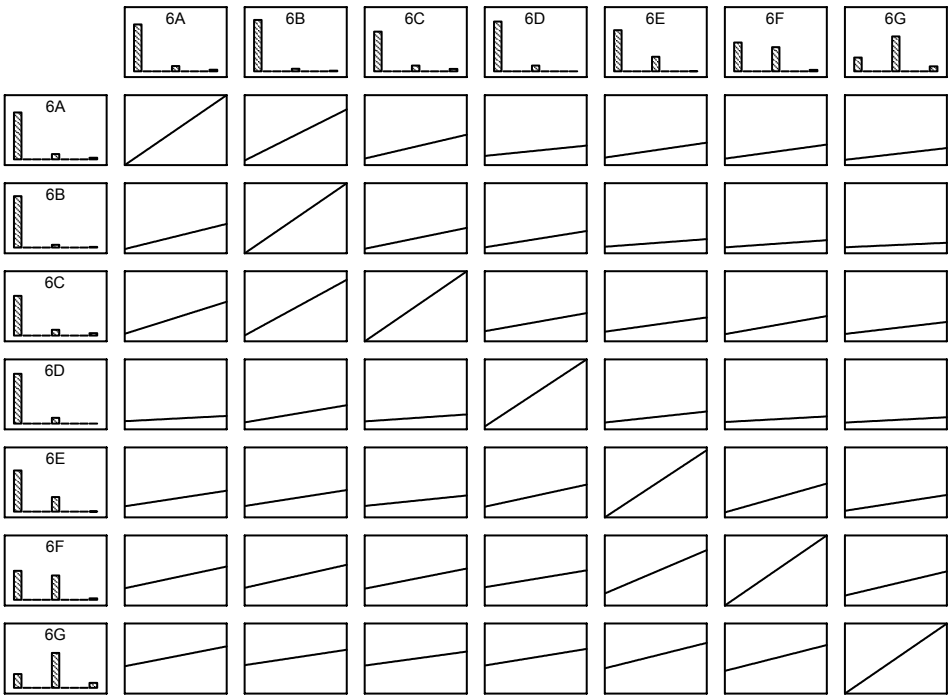


Figure 31. Correlation between consultation success rates: The AS

The data indicate that all the correlations were positive and statistically significant at alpha=0.05, though not very strong. A moderate relationship, yet the strongest one of all, emerged between syntax and style/register (R=0.50). It follows that more frequent success in retrieving

one information category was accompanied by the subjects' increased effectiveness in finding the other. A slightly weaker association (R=0.47) was identified between spelling and pronunciation, and still weaker (0.44) between spelling and part of speech.

To see whether search effects combine into sets, a cluster analysis was performed. The results are presented graphically in Figure 32.

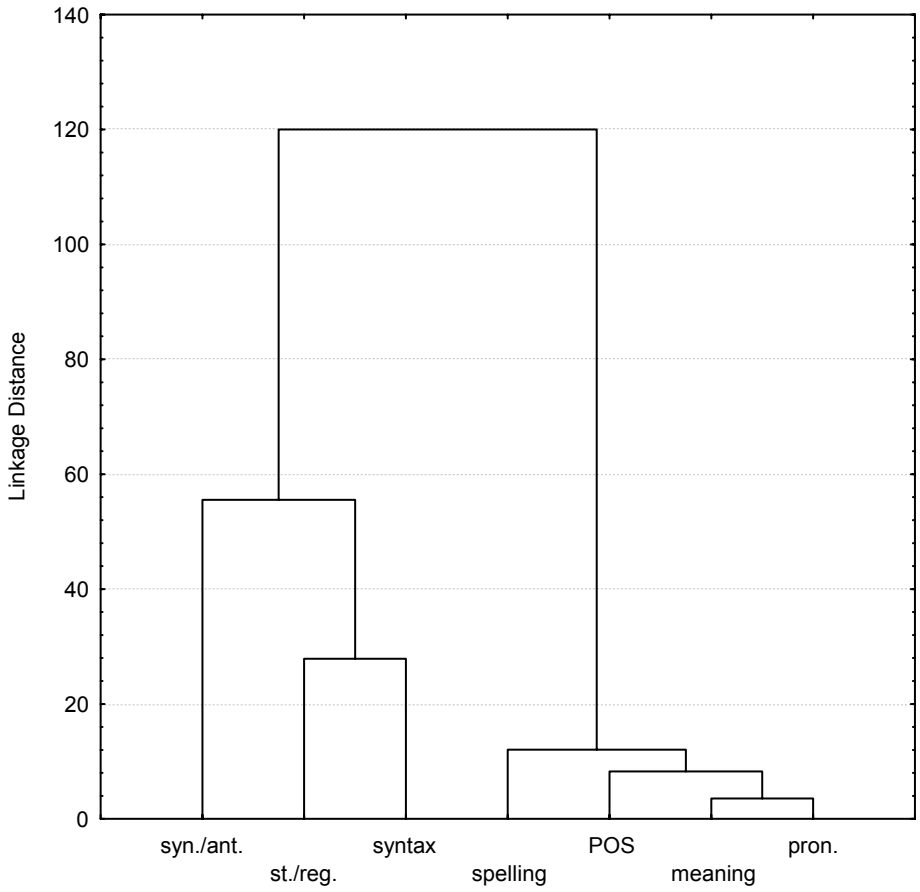


Figure 32. The AS' search effects in clusters

The analysis reveals that the effects of dictionary consultation by the AS' fall into two groups: one is formed of pronunciation, meaning, part of speech and spelling in dictionaries, and the other includes information on syntax, style/register and semantic relations. Clearly, there is a hierarchy

within the tetrad of pronunciation, meaning, part of speech and spelling, all of which are combined at the approximate linkage distance of 12. Meaning and pronunciation form a first-level cluster at the linkage distance of only 4, and part of speech joins it at the distance of 8. The tendency of the four information categories to cluster so closely together may result from the fact that they are usually given in the first part of the monolingual dictionary entry, which has repeatedly proved to be the most salient position, and thus the easiest to retrieve information from, especially in polysemous microstructures (Tono 1984, Nesi 1987, Bogaards 1998, Nesi – Haill 2002).

It also transpires that there is a close affinity between information on style/register and syntax, which make up a first-level cluster as well. Besides, the plot brings out the relatively autonomous nature of semantic relations, joining the aforementioned first-level cluster at the approximate linkage distance of 56, which is about twice as long as the distance between style/register and syntax. This autonomy may stem from the fact that synonyms or antonyms do not constitute a standard feature of all dictionary entries in pedagogical dictionaries of English. Besides, if specified, they are usually placed at the end.[87]

2.3.2.5.2.4. Reference needs and their fulfillment

The data obtained from points five and six of the questionnaire give an opportunity to cross-tabulate the frequencies concerning reference needs

[87] Learners' dictionaries increasingly reveal what McArthur (1998b: 164) calls "hybridity of format". The hybridization consists, among others, in onomasiology creeping into alphabetically arranged learners' dictionaries, as manifested, for example, by "onomasiological pockets" (Zgusta 1989: 3), or synonym notes, where related lexical items are compared and contrasted in the final part of the microstructure. While it might seem that the end of a dictionary entry, often ignored by users, is not a salient position, the research by Nesi and Tan (2011) provides evidence to the contrary, although only with respect to polysemous microstructures. In their study, participants were most successful in locating relevant word senses in the initial and final sections of five-sense entries. The authors conclude that it is the middle of the entry that is the least salient, and not the end, where senses were identified most quickly and accurately (Nesi – Tan 2011: 89). Parallels are also drawn between a dictionary entry and a word, the central part of which has been shown to be less memorable than the extremities, which is known as a "bathtub effect" (Aitchison 1987: 119). Yet, it is not clear whether the effect applies to monosemous entries or depends on entry length (Nesi – Tan 2011: 90).

and success in their fulfillment to see whether a frequent need typically goes with better search results. Relevant Spearman rank correlation coefficients are collated in Table 51.

Table 51. Correlation between look-up frequencies and success rates: The AS

Pair	Information	Spearman R	t	p
5A x 6A	pronunciation	0.36*	8.34	0.00
5B x 6B	spelling	0.20*	4.57	0.00
5C x 6C	POS	0.28*	6.02	0.00
5D x 6D	meaning	0.32*	7.57	0.00
5E x 6E	syntax	0.17*	3.70	0.00
5F x 6F	st./reg.	0.32*	7.30	0.00
5G x 6G	syn./ant.	0.30*	6.78	0.00

The table makes it clear that for all information types, there is a significant and direct, although quite weak correlation between the frequency of dictionary use and consultation effects. The correlation is the strongest for pronunciation (R=0.36), which means that an increased frequency of pronunciation searches is accompanied by a (less than proportionate) rise in the frequency of obtaining satisfactory results from the searches. Correlations of at least 0.30 were also identified for meaning, style/register and semantic relations. The weakest correlation, by contrast, was noted for syntax (R=0.17), which suggests that a greater frequency of looking up syntactic information in dictionaries is associated with the smallest improvement in the effectiveness of the search in comparison with the other information categories. This implies that finding syntactic information is the least dependent on the mere frequency of dictionary consultation motivated by syntax, but must hinge on other factors. Besides, the fairly low values of the coefficient for all the information categories show that in the case of the AS, the frequency of dictionary use to satisfy a given reference need does not determine success.

2.3.2.5.2.5. Reference needs concerning syntax and their fulfillment across the experimental conditions

To get an insight into how the subjects' reference needs and search success rates concerning syntax were distributed across the experimental conditions in the study, relevant data are presented in Table 52.[88]

Table 52. The AS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E by test version

Test	Count				%			
	often	**sometimes**	**hardly ever**	**sum**	**often**	**sometimes**	**hardly ever**	**sum**
5E								
NCA	63	19	1	83	75.9	22.9	1.2	100.0
NCM	56	26	2	84	66.7	31.0	2.4	100.0
NC0	62	19	1	82	75.6	23.2	1.2	100.0
VCA	66	14	3	83	79.5	16.9	3.6	100.0
VCM	59	21	3	83	71.1	25.3	3.6	100.0
VC0	63	22	1	86	73.3	25.6	1.2	100.0
Total	369	121	11	501	73.7	24.2	2.2	100.0
	df=5; alpha=0.05; Chi $_{critical}$=11.070; p=0.51, Chi $_{observed}$=4.252							
6E								
NCA	60	22	0	82	73.2	26.8	0.0	100.0
NCM	63	20	0	83	75.9	24.1	0.0	100.0
NC0	54	24	2	80	67.5	30.0	2.5	100.0
VCA	58	22	0	80	72.5	27.5	0.0	100.0
VCM	66	14	0	80	82.5	17.5	0.0	100.0
VC0	59	25	0	84	70.2	29.8	0.0	100.0
Total	360	127	2	489	73.6	26.0	0.4	100.0
	df=5; alpha=0.05; Chi $_{critical}$=11.070; p=0.35, Chi $_{observed}$=5.569							

The results of the Chi-square test show that in the group of the AS there was no correspondence between the type of test and either the frequency of reference to pedagogical dictionaries for information on syntax or the effectiveness of this kind of search. In other words, the proportions of the AS who chose the relevant options given in 5E and 6E were comparable

[88] See Table B.5 in the appendix for details on the computation of the Chi-square test.

in all the experimental conditions. Thus, the subjects' reference needs and search effects concerning syntax could not have had any bearing on the differences between the results obtained from the tests in the study.

2.3.2.5.3. Intermediate subjects

2.3.2.5.3.1. Preliminaries

The IS' responses given in points five and six of the questionnaire are summarized in Table 53 and Figure 33.

Table 53. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The IS

Information category		Count				%				index	Sorted by index		
		often	sometimes	hardly ever	sum	often	sometimes	hardly ever	sum				
5A	pron.	37	102	138	277	13.4	36.8	49.8	100.0	1.64	5D	meaning	2.61
5B	spelling	95	143	41	279	34.1	51.3	14.7	100.0	2.19	5B	spelling	2.19
5C	POS	22	116	134	272	8.1	42.6	49.3	100.0	1.59	5E	syntax	2.12
5D	meaning	193	82	15	290	66.6	28.3	5.2	100.0	2.61	5F	st./reg.	1.97
5E	syntax	99	111	65	275	36.0	40.4	23.6	100.0	2.12	5G	syn./ant.	1.92
5F	st./reg.	70	126	79	275	25.5	45.8	28.7	100.0	1.97	5A	pron.	1.64
5G	syn./ant.	54	151	78	283	19.1	53.4	27.6	100.0	1.92	5C	POS	1.59
Sum		570	831	550	1951	29.2	42.6	28.2	100.0				
6A	pron.	120	51	51	222	54.1	23.0	23.0	100.0	2.31	6B	spelling	2.72
6B	spelling	200	42	15	257	77.8	16.3	5.8	100.0	2.72	6D	meaning	2.70
6C	POS	115	67	40	222	51.8	30.2	18.0	100.0	2.34	6E	syntax	2.35
6D	meaning	208	63	11	282	73.8	22.3	3.9	100.0	2.70	6C	POS	2.34
6E	syntax	123	91	35	249	49.4	36.5	14.1	100.0	2.35	6A	pron.	2.31
6F	st./reg.	93	111	37	241	38.6	46.1	15.4	100.0	2.23	6F	st./reg.	2.23
6G	syn./ant.	74	126	49	249	29.7	50.6	19.7	100.0	2.10	6G	syn./ant.	2.10
Sum		933	551	238	1722	54.2	32.0	13.8	100.0				

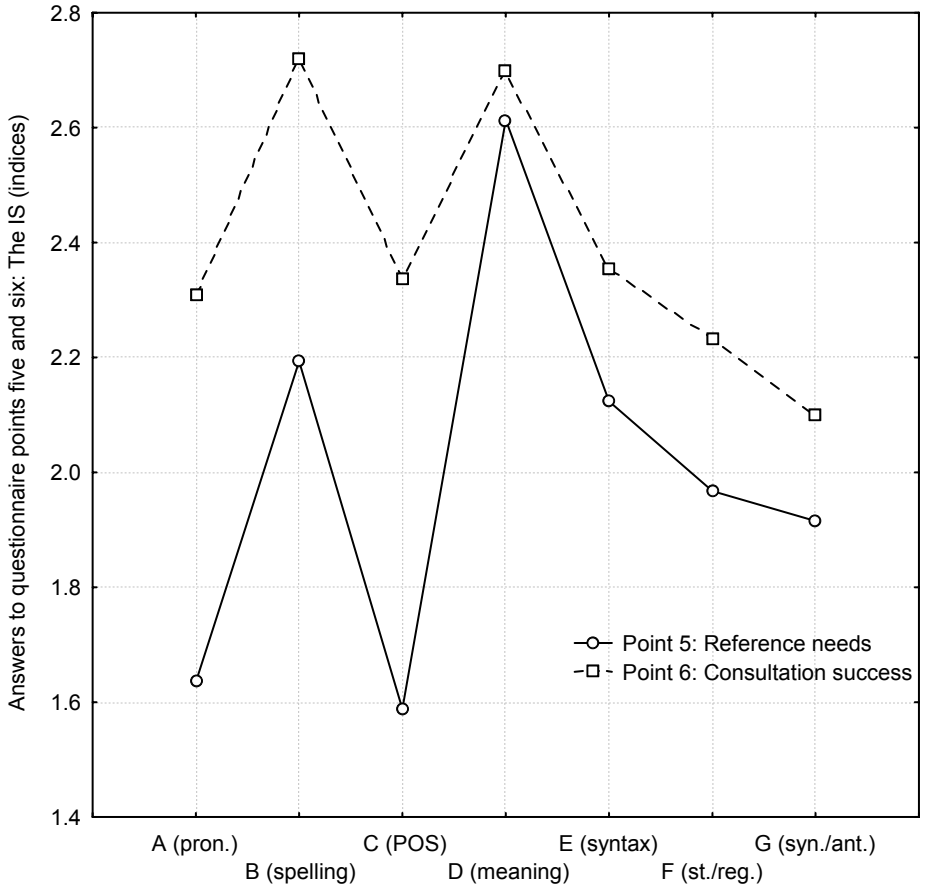


Figure 33. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The IS (indices)

The data show that the IS, like the AS, needed pedagogical dictionaries of English mainly to check meaning. Spelling and the use of lexical items in sentences turned out to be the next two most frequent reasons for dictionary consultation. However, only for these three information categories were the indices over 2.[89] At the intermediate level, style/register (1.97) and semantic relations (1.92) ranked as the fourth and fifth motives for dictionary use, respectively. Problems with pronunciation (1.64) and parts of speech (1.59) led to dictionary consultation least often.

[89] In the more advanced group, by contrast, one index was below that value. See Table 48 and Figure 28.

As regards the IS' success in finding the information categories in learners' dictionaries, searches for spelling and meaning yielded the expected results most often, as evidenced by the indices of at least 2.70. The effects of looking up information on syntax, grammatical word class and pronunciation were considered less satisfactory, with the respective indices exceeding 2.30. Attempts to extract information on style/register from pedagogical dictionaries ended in success still less frequently (2.23), but it was with finding synonyms and antonyms (2.10) that the IS had most problems. In is worth noting that the indices of success in dictionary consultation were for each information type higher than those for the frequency of looking it up.[90]

2.3.2.5.3.2. Reference needs

The values of the Spearman R statistic given in Table 54 and illustrated in Figure 34 permit a closer analysis of the IS' reference needs.

Table 54. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The IS

Pair		**5A**	**5B**	**5C**	**5D**	**5E**	**5F**	**5G**
		pron.	**spelling**	**POS**	**meaning**	**syntax**	**st./reg.**	**syn./ant.**
5A	pron.	1.00	0.21*	0.23*	-0.05	0.19*	0.13*	0.16*
5B	spelling	0.21*	1.00	0.31*	0.26*	0.08	0.18*	0.09
5C	POS	0.23*	0.31*	1.00	0.08	0.23*	0.17*	0.22*
5D	meaning	-0.05	0.26*	0.08	1.00	0.25*	0.28*	0.11
5E	syntax	0.19*	0.08	0.23*	0.25*	1.00	0.60*	0.42*
5F	st./reg.	0.13*	0.18*	0.17*	0.28*	0.60*	1.00	0.30*
5G	syn./ant.	0.16*	0.09	0.22*	0.11	0.42*	0.30*	1.00

[90] As shown in Table 48 and Figure 28, in the more advanced group such a relation did not obtain for semantic relations.

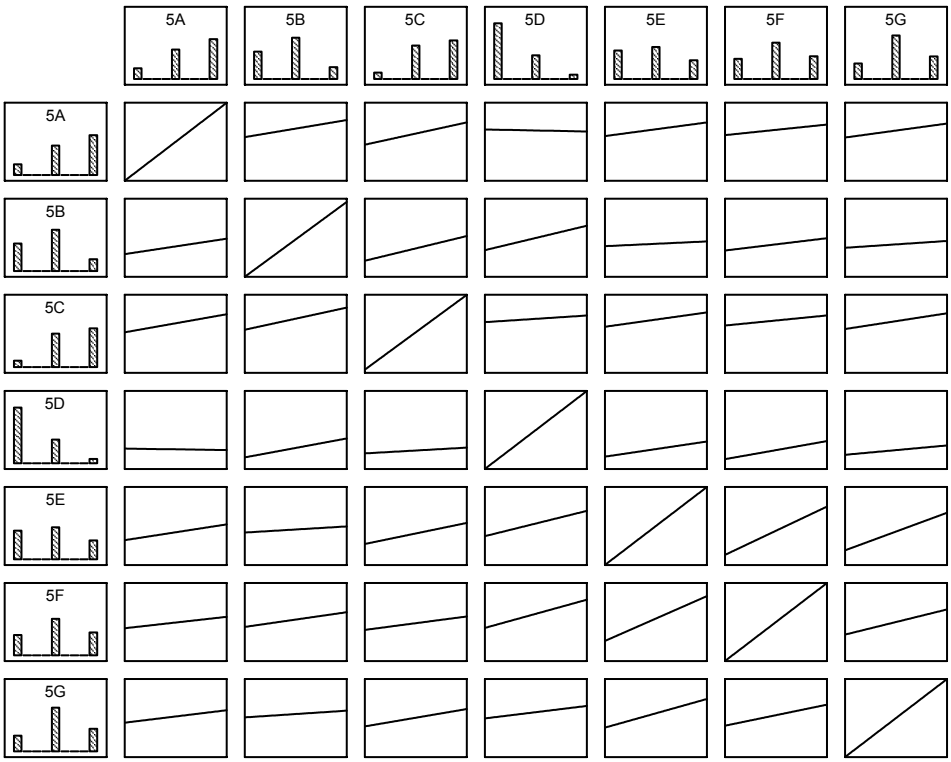


Figure 34. Correlation between dictionary users' needs: The IS

As can be seen, in most cases, the correlations between the respective needs are significant at alpha=0.05 and direct, though not very close. The strongest relation (R=0.60) developed between syntax and style/register, as was the case in the more advanced group. Thus, the IS searching for syntax were usually interested in information on style/register. The second strongest correlation (R=42) obtained between syntax and semantic relations. Correlation coefficients of at least 0.30 characterize also the relations between spelling and part of speech as well as style/register and semantic relations.

Figure 35 presents the results of the cluster analysis performed on the data describing the IS' reference needs.

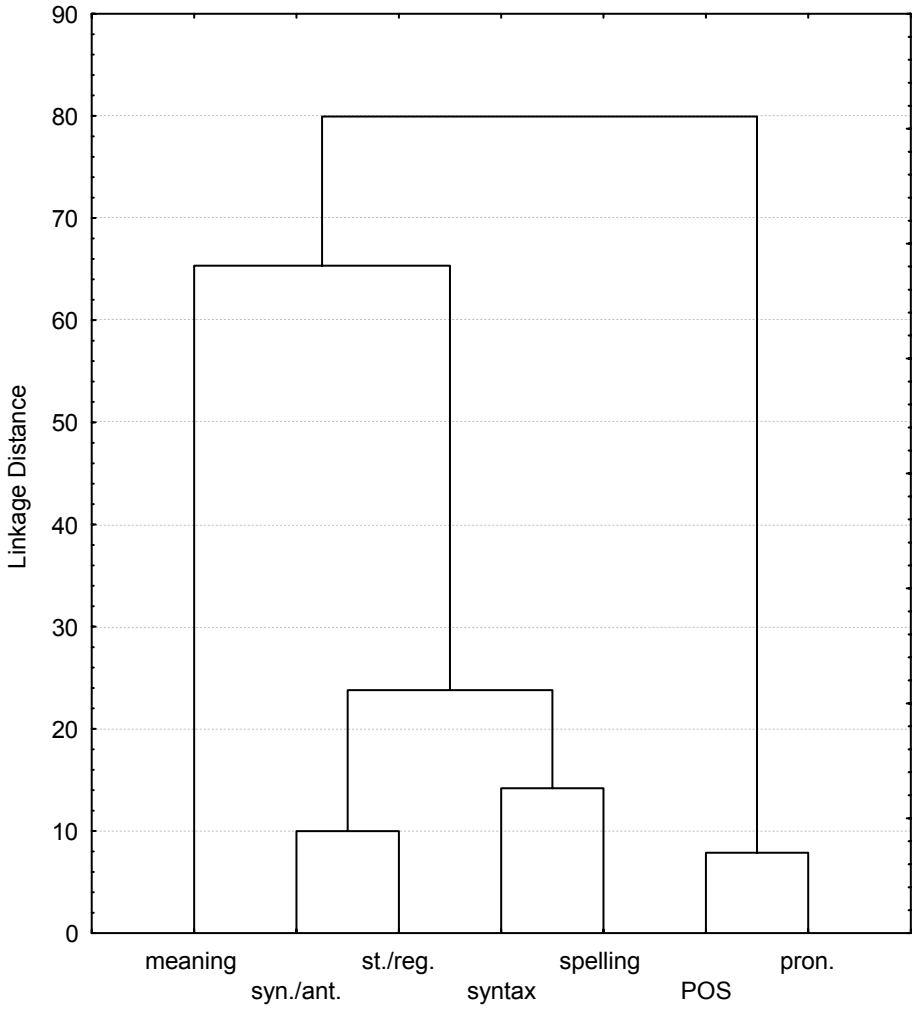


Figure 35. Dictionary users' needs in clusters: The IS

The figure reveals a third-level, five-item cluster of the IS' reference needs, which includes meaning, spelling, syntax, style/register and semantic relations. However, within this cluster, meaning is largely autonomous, since it joins the set of the other four needs at the linkage distance of approximately 66. It is worth noting that there is a much closer affinity between semantic relations and style/register, which form a first-level cluster at ten. Syntax and spelling, in turn, combine into an-

other first-level group a little further, at the level of 14. Both sets are joined at the distance of 24. On the other hand, there is a largely independent, first-level cluster of pronunciation and part of speech, formed at the distance of only eight, which joins the other (five-item) cluster ten times further. Thus, unlike in the more advanced group, where, as shown in section 2.3.2.5.2.2., the needs for meaning and syntax combine, at the lower proficiency level there is a clear divide between decoding and encoding purposes of dictionary use, as evidenced by the large autonomy of meaning as a reason for dictionary consultation.

In conclusion, in the hierarchy of reference needs at the intermediate level, meaning, the most fundamental motivation for dictionary use in this group, is at the top. The two dyads of spelling and syntax as well as style/register and semantic relations together (as a tetrad) form a lower level. The cluster of pronunciation and part of speech is on the bottom rung.

2.3.2.5.3.3. Success in dictionary consultation

Table 55 presents the values of the Spearman R statistic for the success rates of dictionary use by the IS'. The correlations are illustrated graphically in Figure 36.

Table 55. Correlation between consultation success rates: The IS

Pair		**6A**	**6B**	**6C**	**6D**	**6E**	**6F**	**6G**
		pron.	**spelling**	**POS**	**meaning**	**syntax**	**st./reg.**	**syn./ant.**
6A	pron.	1.00	0.42*	0.48*	0.19*	0.30*	0.26*	0.16*
6B	spelling	0.42*	1.00	0.37*	0.36*	0.28*	0.22*	0.21*
6C	POS	0.48*	0.37*	1.00	0.30*	0.40*	0.33*	0.26*
6D	meaning	0.19*	0.36*	0.30*	1.00	0.27*	0.23*	0.21*
6E	syntax	0.30*	0.28*	0.40*	0.27*	1.00	0.63*	0.38*
6F	st./reg.	0.26*	0.22*	0.33*	0.23*	0.63*	1.00	0.44*
6G	syn./ant.	0.16*	0.21*	0.26*	0.21*	0.38*	0.44*	1.00

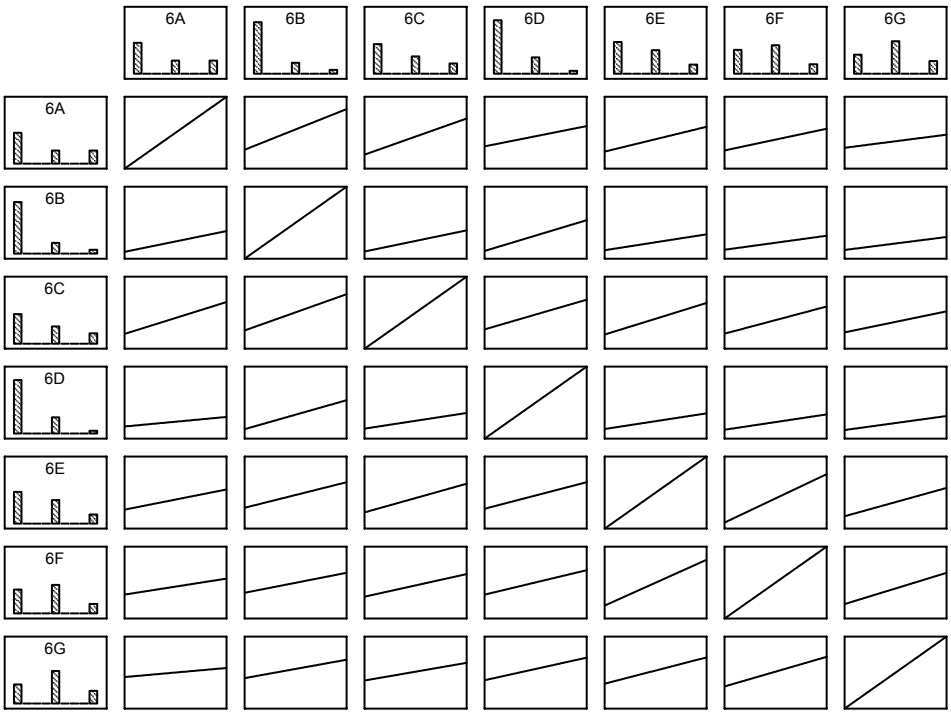
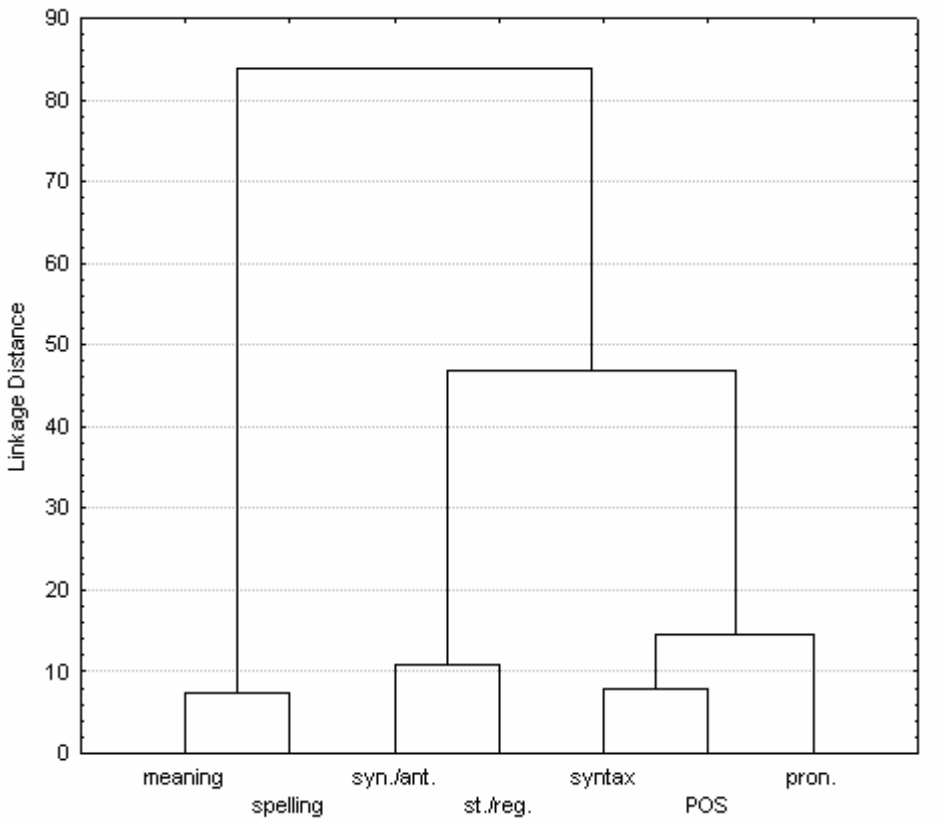


Figure 36. Correlation between consultation success rates: The IS

The coefficients imply positive and statistically significant correlations between the investigated effects of dictionary use. The results of looking up information on syntax and style/register are correlated most strongly (R=0.63), which means that more successful identification of one information category in a dictionary is linked with the subjects' increased effectiveness in finding the other. The second highest coefficient (R=0.48) points to moderately strong and positive relations between extracting information on the grammatical category of headwords and pronunciation. Correlation coefficients of at least 0.40 were obtained also for style/register and semantic relations, spelling and pronunciation as well as syntax and parts of speech.

The results of the cluster analysis for the effects of dictionary use by the IS are presented graphically in the vertical icicle plot in Figure 37.

Figure 37. The IS' search effects in clusters



The analysis suggests that the effects of reference to learners' dictionaries by the IS fall into two distinct clusters. Meaning and spelling make up one at the approximate distance of only 8. Information on syntax, part of speech, pronunciation, style/register and semantic relations form the other at a distance about six times larger. Nonetheless, within the latter set, there is a close affinity between syntax and part of speech, which combine into a first-level cluster at the approximate distance of 8. This dyad turns into a triad at 14, where it extends to pronunciation. Style/register and semantic relations form another first-level group at the distance of 10.

Overall, the clustering of the IS' success rates appears to be dependent more on what is to be extracted from entries than on where the information is placed. For example, finding syntactic information, which is usually interspersed in the entry, combines with identifying the part of speech, which is typically specified in the entry line, possibly because both activities concern information on grammar. To explain the clustering

of pronunciation and part of speech information, it should be pointed out that pronunciation can constitute a distinctive feature of homographs which represent the same grammatical category (e.g., *row* – a line of seats, *row* – a serious disagreement). Likewise, part of speech information is useful in telling apart homonyms, which are pronounced in the same way (e.g., *stalk* V and N). Besides, both pronunciation and parts of speech can make it possible to distinguish between some homographs as well (e.g., *increase* N and V). Synonyms and antonyms, in turn, quite often differ in style/register, which might be a reason why these information categories cluster together, regardless of the fact that semantic relations are usually given at the end of entries, while details on style/register – at the beginning. It may be hypothesized, then, that while in the advanced group the configuration of the effects of dictionary consultation seems to be rather place-related (within the microstructure), in the less advanced one it proves to be more content-related.

2.3.2.5.3.4. Reference needs and their fulfillment

Table 56 gives Spearman R coefficients reflecting the relationships between the IS' reference needs and the extent to which dictionary use satisfies them.

Table 56. Correlation between look-up frequencies and success rates: The IS

Pair	**Information**	**Spearman R**	**t**	**p**
5A x 6A	pronunciation	0.63*	11.95	0.00
5B x 6B	spelling	0.35*	5.96	0.00
5C x 6C	POS	0.40*	6.51	0.00
5D x 6D	meaning	0.37*	6.67	0.00
5E x 6E	syntax	0.49*	8.72	0.00
5F x 6F	st./reg.	0.62*	12.23	0.00
5G x 6G	syn./ant.	0.51*	9.21	0.00

The data show that for each information category, there is a positive and statistically significant correlation between the frequency and effects of look-up. It is also worth noting that the coefficients for the intermediate group exceed those for the advanced one, collated in Table 51 in section 2.3.2.5.2.4. The highest coefficients (over 0.60) characterize pronuncia-

tion and style/register. Thus, the more frequently either type of information is looked up, the more successful the search becomes.[91] Moderate correlations obtained for synonyms/antonyms and syntax (R=0.51 and R=0.49, respectively), while the weakest ones were observed for spelling (R=0.35).

2.3.2.5.3.5. Reference needs concerning syntax and their fulfillment across the experimental conditions

Data on the frequency and effects of looking up syntax by the IS assigned to different experimental conditions, obtained from points 5E and 6E, are presented in Table 57. Details on the computations of the Chi-square statistic are given in Table B.6 in the appendix.

Table 57. The IS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E by test version

Test	Count				%			
	often	**sometimes**	**hardly ever**	**sum**	**often**	**sometimes**	**hardly ever**	**sum**
5E								
NCA	14	25	13	52	26.9	48.1	25.0	100.0
NCM	17	18	12	47	36.2	38.3	25.5	100.0
NC0	21	13	11	45	46.7	28.9	24.4	100.0
VCA	15	20	11	46	32.6	43.5	23.9	100.0
VCM	16	20	10	46	34.8	43.5	21.7	100.0
VC0	16	15	8	39	41.0	38.5	20.5	100.0
Total	99	111	65	275	36.0	40.4	23.6	100.0
	df=10; alpha=0.05; $Chi_{critical}$= 18.307; p=0.82, $Chi_{observed}$= 5.950							
6E								
NCA	23	15	6	44	52.3	34.1	13.6	100.0
NCM	18	20	7	45	40.0	44.4	15.6	100.0
NC0	18	17	6	41	43.9	41.5	14.6	100.0
VCA	18	21	5	44	40.9	47.7	11.4	100.0
VCM	25	11	7	43	58.1	25.6	16.3	100.0
VC0	21	7	4	32	65.6	21.9	12.5	100.0
Total	123	91	35	249	49.4	36.5	14.1	100.0
	df=10; alpha=0.05; $Chi_{critical}$= 18.307; p=0.36, $Chi_{observed}$=10.931							

[91] As shown in section 2.3.2.5.2.4, the two correlations were the strongest also at the advanced level.

The data indicate that neither the frequency of consulting pedagogical dictionaries for syntactic information nor the effects of such reference were related to the test types in the experiment. Thus, there are no grounds for treating the IS' syntactic needs and the extent to which they were met as factors which could have biased the results obtained in the different experimental conditions.

2.3.2.5.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

The juxtaposition of the indices for the AS and the IS in Table 58 and Figure 38 makes it possible to compare the subjects' reference needs and dictionary consultation success rates. For the sake of convenience, the rankings given in sections 2.3.2.5.2.1 and 2.3.2.5.3.1 are set side by side for the two groups as well.

Table 58. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS and the IS

Info. category		**Point 5 (Needs)**							**Point 6 (Success)**						
		AS	**IS**	**AS/IS**	**AS**		**IS**		**AS**	**IS**	**AS/IS**	**AS**		**IS**	
A	pron.	2.46	1.64	1.50	1	meaning	1	meaning	2.84	2.31	1.23	1	spelling	1	spelling
B	spelling	2.38	2.19	1.09	2	syntax	2	spelling	2.92	2.72	1.07	2	meaning	2	meaning
C	POS	1.88	1.59	1.18	3	st./reg.	3	syntax	2.77	2.34	1.18	3	pron.	3	syntax
D	meaning	2.77	2.61	1.06	4	pron.	4	st./reg.	2.89	2.70	1.07	4	POS	4	POS
E	syntax	2.71	2.12	1.28	5	spelling	5	syn./ant.	2.73	2.35	1.16	5	syntax	5	pron.
F	st./reg.	2.48	1.97	1.26	6	syn./ant.	6	pron.	2.50	2.23	1.12	6	st./reg.	6	st./reg.
G	syn./ant.	2.21	1.92	1.15	7	POS	7	POS	2.16	2.10	1.03	7	syn./ant.	7	syn./ant.
	MEAN	2.41	2.01	1.20	-	–	-	–	2.69	2.39	1.13	-	–	-	–

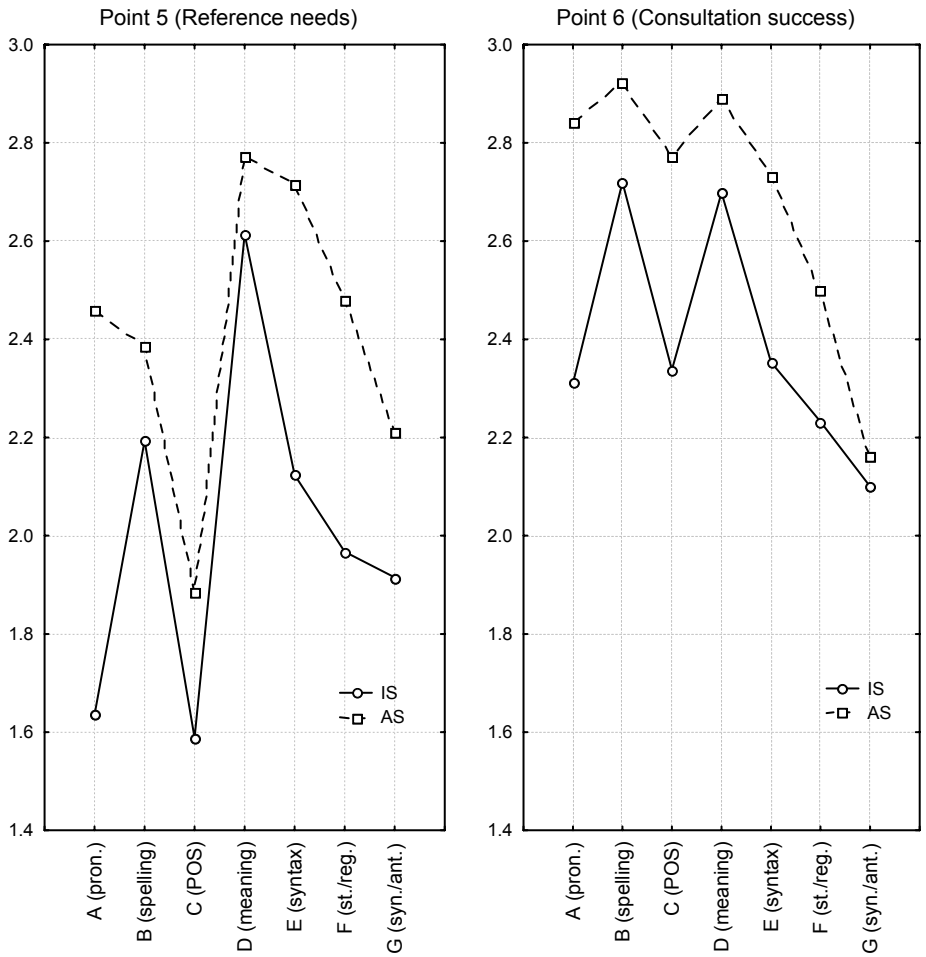


Figure 38. Reference needs and success in dictionary use: The AS and the IS

As can be seen, for each information category, the AS declared more frequent dictionary use than the IS, and they were more satisfied with the results of their dictionary consultation. The largest difference in reference needs between the two proficiency groups can be observed for pronunciation, which the AS checked half as often again as the IS, and the smallest – for meaning, where the difference was only 6 percent. It should also be noted that the AS treated dictionaries as sources of syntactic information

about 30 percent more often than the IS. On average, the AS referred to learners' dictionaries 20 percent more often than the IS.

Differences in consultation results between the groups were not usually as big as those in reference needs. The gap was the largest for pronunciation, in the case of which the AS were about 25 percent more successful than the IS. The AS were only slightly (3 percent) more effective in identifying synonyms and antonyms. The differences between the proficiency levels, still in favor of the advanced one, were below 10 percent also for meaning and spelling. It is worth mentioning that the AS were only around 16 percent more satisfied with looking up syntax in pedagogical dictionaries than the IS. Overall, the assessment of information retrieval from pedagogical dictionaries was 13 percent better in the advanced group than in the intermediate one.

This result is at odds with the conclusion drawn by Atkins and Varantola (1997), who found that more proficient dictionary users were typically less satisfied with reference to dictionaries. In their words, "the more the users know about the foreign language, the less easy they are to please … the advanced L2 speakers were more reluctant than others to say that they had definitely found what they were looking for" (Atkins – Varantola 1997: 25). A possible reason for the different conclusion drawn from the present survey is the better quality of the user-oriented dictionaries for advanced learners which the subjects referred to in comparison with those, much less accessible, available in the mid-1990s.

The juxtaposed rankings of reference needs show that it is meaning that most often made the intermediate and advanced learners use dictionaries. Syntax was the next most frequent motive for the advanced. At the intermediate level, it still remained quite important, but, preceded by spelling, is ranked third. Conversely, both groups consulted pedagogical dictionaries least often to check the grammatical category of lexical items.

The partly overlapping rankings notwithstanding, the reference needs of the AS and the IS do not cluster similarly. As observed in sections 2.3.2.5.2.2 and 2.3.2.5.3.2, the needs of the AS can be divided into core (meaning, syntax, style/register, pronunciation) and peripheral (spelling, semantic relations, part of speech). At the intermediate level, in turn, the relative autonomy of meaning as the most important reason for dictionary consultation suggests that the subjects refer to pedagogical dictionaries above all for decoding purposes.

The declared effects of dictionary use were comparable at both levels inasmuch as all the subjects were most often satisfied with the results of checking meaning and spelling, while style/register and semantic relations proved the most difficult to find. The problems with retrieving style/register and synonyms/antonyms might be put down to the fact that, unlike the other information categories under discussion, they do not feature in all dictionary entries; the neutral style/register is usually unmarked, and, as already pointed out above, not all headwords in a learners' dictionary are accompanied by synonyms or antonyms. Interestingly, for the AS, pronunciation was the third information category the search for which was considered successful, and syntax – the fifth. For the IS, the reverse was true – syntax occupied the third position, while pronunciation – the fifth. Achievements in word class identification proved to rank fourth in both groups.

Irrespective of the partly similar hierarchies of success rates, the cluster analyses in sections 2.3.2.5.2.3 and 2.3.2.5.3.3 show that there are markedly different degrees of affinity between the search effects at the two proficiency levels. A place-related categorization of the AS' dictionary consultation results was posited, with information in salient (initial) parts of the microstructure being the easiest to retrieve. As for the IS, a more content-related grouping was postulated, since the information category to be found, rather than its place, seems to decide the hierarchy.[92]

By way of conclusion, it is worth pointing out that the correlation analyses in the preceding sections brought to light usually weak, and much more seldom moderate or marked correlations between the investigated reference needs on the one hand, and success rates on the other. At each level, the strongest correlations were observed between the needs for syntax and style/register. The effects of identifying these information types turned out to be most strongly correlated as well. Besides, it transpires that success in dictionary use is not a simple function of the frequency of dictionary consultation. While in both groups relations between look-up frequencies and effects were the strongest for pronunciation and style/register, in the case of syntax, the association turned out to be one of the strongest as well, but only at intermediate level. In the more advanced

[92] These are surprising findings in view of the fact that advanced learners might be expected to be more aware of the roles various information categories can play (also in distinguishing between related lexical items), while less proficient students could seem more likely to succeed in finding the information given first in the microstructure.

group, it was the weakest, although syntax was there the second most important motive for dictionary use. It is also worth noting that the correlations under discussion were as a rule stronger at the lower level of proficiency than at the higher one. Thus, in the intermediate group, extracting specific information from learners' dictionaries was more dependent on the frequency of looking it up. This regularity might follow from the fact that intermediate students are not usually experienced in using dictionaries yet, so the more often they consult them, the more skills they acquire. By contrast, advanced learners, who have more direct and extensive experience with dictionaries and a better command of English, may need information which is more difficult to find in pedagogical dictionaries. Thus, their success might be dependent not so much on the mere frequency of dictionary use, but, for example, on the specific information they look up or even the dictionary which they refer to.

Last but not least, the analysis reveals that the subjects' experience in retrieving syntax from dictionaries could not have significantly influenced the results from the experiment. At each proficiency level, the assessment of syntactic needs and their fulfillment proved independent of the test versions used in the study.

2.3.2.6. Familiarity with symbol description in dictionaries

Table 59 collates the data on the subjects' responses given in point seven of the questionnaire, where they were requested to say whether or not they had familiarized themselves with the explanations of symbols in the monolingual English learners' dictionaries which they routinely used (*yes* and *no* respectively). In the table, *some* corresponds to the third option in the multiple-choice question, which was to be chosen when the subjects had read the descriptions of symbols only in some dictionaries which they consulted. More information on the computation of the Chi-square test is given in Table B.7 in the appendix.

Table 59. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries by experimental conditions

Test	Count				%				
	Yes	**No**	**Some**	**Sum**	**Yes**	**No**	**Some**	**Yes+Some**	**Sum**
AS									
NCA	37	14	33	84	44.0	16.7	39.3	83.3	100.0
NCM	36	15	33	84	42.9	17.9	39.3	82.1	100.0
NC0	41	16	24	81	50.6	19.8	29.6	80.2	100.0
VCA	28	21	34	83	33.7	25.3	41.0	74.7	100.0
VCM	27	27	28	82	32.9	32.9	34.1	67.1	100.0
VC0	42	13	29	84	50.0	15.5	34.5	84.5	100.0
Total	211	106	181	498	42.4	21.3	36.3	78.7	100.0
	df=10; alpha=0.05 $Chi_{critical}$= 18.307; p=0.09, $Chi_{observed}$ = 16.356								
IS									
NCA	17	22	14	53	32.1	41.5	26.4	58.5	100.0
NCM	10	24	15	49	20.4	49.0	30.6	51.0	100.0
NC0	12	23	10	45	26.7	51.1	22.2	48.9	100.0
VCA	18	16	12	46	39.1	34.8	26.1	65.2	100.0
VCM	20	21	7	48	41.7	43.8	14.6	56.3	100.0
VC0	15	20	8	43	34.9	46.5	18.6	53.5	100.0
Total	92	126	66	284	32.4	44.4	23.2	55.6	100.0
	df=10; alpha=0.05; $Chi_{critical}$=18.307; p=0.45, $Chi_{observed}$= 9.928								

The values of the Chi-square statistic prove that, at each level, the assignment of the subjects to the tests in the experiment was independent of their knowledge of symbols in the pedagogical dictionaries of English which they used. Thus, the AS' and the IS' familiarity with the symbols was comparable in all the tests in the study and could not have significantly influenced the results obtained in the different experimental conditions. Consequently, there is no need to pay attention to the tests in further analysis of the subjects' responses.

As can be seen from the table, around four fifths of the AS and over half of the IS who answered the question in point seven took the trouble to analyze the explanation of symbols at least in some dictionaries they referred to. Furthermore, two fifths of the AS and one third of the IS claimed that they were familiar with such descriptions in all the dictionaries they used.

Table 60 presents the results of the two-tailed Z test conducted to compare the total percentages obtained for the AS and the IS, illustrated in Figure 39.

Table 60. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: The AS and the IS compared

Answers to questionnaire point 7	**AS**	**IS**	**Z Test**	**p**
	P1 (AS)	**P2 (IS)**		
Yes	42.4	32.4	2.754	0.01*
No	21.3	44.4	-6.795	0.00*
Some	36.3	23.2	3.792	0.00*

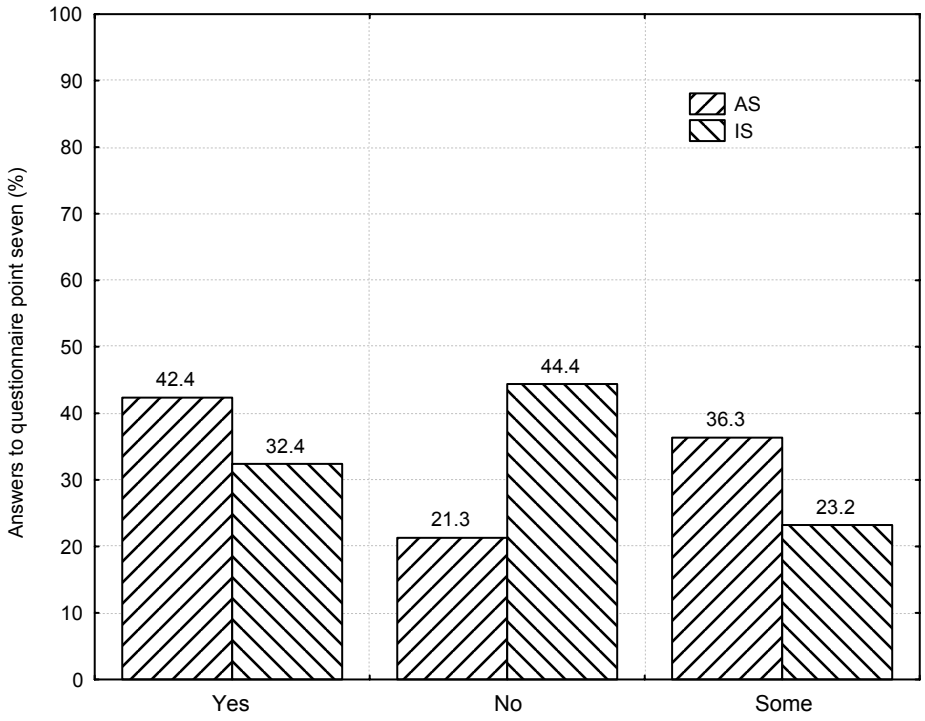


Figure 39. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: The AS and the IS compared

The data show that the AS were more often familiar with symbol descriptions than the IS both when all and some dictionaries used by the subjects are considered. The respective differences between the two proficiency

groups of about 30 and 60 percent are statistically significant at alpha=0.05. Clearly, the AS' better command of English aroused their curiosity about symbols and codes in dictionaries.

2.3.2.7. Dictionary awareness

In the last point of the questionnaire, the subjects were requested to give information on the monolingual English learners' dictionaries which they consulted. In particular, they were to specify titles, editions, dates of publication, editors and publishers – everything they could recall.[93] Given the exploratory nature of this analysis, no attention is paid below to the tests the subjects dealt with in the experiment. For one thing, remembering some bibliographic information on dictionaries cannot be equated with reference skills, and such specifics can escape even regular and experienced dictionary users. For another, it is highly unlikely that the mere recollection of the details in question influenced the subjects' performance in the experiment.

Table 61 gives information on the number of dictionaries used by the subjects who responded to questionnaire point eight. The percentages are also shown in Figure 40.

Table 61. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A quantitative approach

		Number of dictionaries			**All**
		1	**2**	**3 or more**	
AS	Count	171	118	176	465
	%	36.8	25.4	37.8	100.0
IS	Count	117	28	9	154
	%	76.0	18.2	5.8	100.0

[93] Knowledge of such details is believed to testify to the subjects' awareness of the dictionaries which they used. However, this understanding of dictionary awareness does not coincide with how the notion is defined by Hartmann (1999: 5), for whom it relates to dictionary purposes, dictionary users, contexts of dictionary use and reference skills. The interpretation accepted below diverges also from how Márquez Linares (1998: 163) explains dictionary awareness, i.e., knowledge of where (i.e. in what dictionary) the needed information can be found and how it can be extracted from that source. For Komuro and Yamada (2000), in turn, dictionary awareness equals familiarity with the wide variety of dictionaries available on the market.

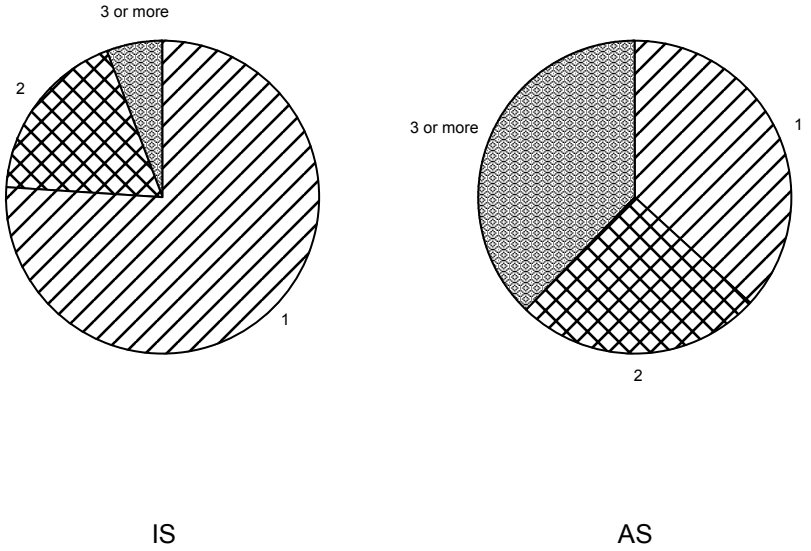


Figure 40. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A quantitative approach

The data show that the number of the AS who could recall some bibliographic details about the dictionaries which they used was about three times higher than that of the IS. Information on only one dictionary was recalled by over three fourths of the IS and one third of the AS who supplied an answer. Interestingly, a comparable number of the AS remembered something about at least three dictionaries, while only around six percent of the IS were able to provide so many details. About one fifth of the IS and one fourth of the AS gave some information on two dictionaries which they used.

Unfortunately, some answers were far from satisfactory. In the majority of cases it was possible to figure out which dictionaries the subjects meant, but it was much more difficult to identify editions. Whereas some AS were able to use dictionary acronyms, or even indicate editions, editors or publication dates, the IS usually did not have such knowledge. The latter often cited only some words from dictionary titles, or words related to places of publication or publishing houses. Due to the incomplete and

insufficient information supplied, it was not always clear whether monolingual dictionaries for learners of English were meant in the first place. The following keywords were eventually accepted as possibly indicative of pedagogical dictionaries of English: *Collins, Cobuild, Longman, Oxford, Cambridge, Macmillan*, in contrast to, for example, *Buchman, Langenscheidt, EDWIN* or *Penguin*.[94]

There were also answers which revealed that the dictionaries which the subjects referred to were not general-purpose, monolingual English learners' dictionaries, to mention the *The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary (English-Polish Polish-English)*, BBI (*The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English: A Guide to Word Combinations*), LPD Wells (*Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* by J. C. Wells), *Cambridge Pronunciation Dictionary* or *Oxford Illustrated Dictionary*. Worse yet, some subjects limited themselves to describing the physical appearance of the dictionaries which they used, and all they could recall was, for example, that their dictionary was very old or brown with white-red stripes. All such instances were excluded from further investigation.[95] Finally, although the subjects were not expected to specify dictionary form, some of them mentioned the electronic medium. Such information was taken into account, but independently of the target bibliographic details.

Table 62 summarizes the obtained information. The totals in the table correspond to the number of subjects who supplied valid responses.[96]

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[94] Taking the keywords to suggest monolingual dictionaries for learners of English might obviously raise some doubts, since they feature in titles of some bilingualized dictionaries (e.g., *Oxford Wordpower* (Philips 2002) or *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary* (Lew 2003)) and bilingual ones (e.g., *Collins English-Polish, Polish-English dictionary* (Fisiak et al. 2006) or *Wielki słownik angielsko-polski PWN-Oxford* (Linde-Usiekniewicz et al. (2005)). However, any answers which pointed to bilingualized or bilingual dictionaries were eventually eliminated from analysis, the presence of the aforementioned words notwithstanding. To acknowledge the vagueness of the responses limited to the keywords alone, they were classified separately from those were the subjects indicated monolingual English learners' dictionaries beyond any doubt. See Table 62 below.

[95] The answers of approximately three percent of the AS and around 11 percent of the IS had to be ruled out.

[96] The totals do not equal the sums of counts, because some students gave information on more than one dictionary.

Table 62. English monolingual dictionaries for learners used by the subjects: A qualitative approach

Keyword	**AS**			**IS**		
	Count	**%**	**Cumulative %**	**Count**	**%**	**Cumulative %**
LDOCE	144	31.9		24	17.5	
Longman	96	21.3	53.2	40	29.2	46.7
OALDCE	114	25.3		9	6.6	
Oxford	122	27.1	52.3	48	35.0	41.6
CALD	37	8.2		1	0.7	
CIDE	3	0.7		3	2.2	
Cambridge	61	13.5	22.4	11	8.0	10.9
COBUILD	21	4.7		1	0.7	
Collins	24	5.3	10.0	15	10.9	11.7
MEDAL	22	4.9		3	2.2	
Macmillan	13	2.9	7.8	3	2.2	4.4
Internet	21	4.7		15	10.9	
CD-ROM	20	4.4		1	0.7	
Total	451			137		

The data show that LDOCE and OALDCE were most widely used in both groups. This conclusion holds true irrespective of whether the keywords are taken into consideration or not. By contrast, MEDAL, CALD/CIDE and COBUILD were much less popular with the subjects. Besides, the proportion of the IS who admitted using dictionaries online was over twice as big as that of the AS. It should nonetheless be stressed that respondents were not expected to give information on dictionary form, and not all of them decided to do so.

Overall, the AS were more aware of the dictionaries they consulted and could give details on a few dictionaries at a time. The IS apparently did not pay so much attention to what dictionaries they referred to, since much fewer of them could furnish the required information, and usually on one dictionary only. However, irrespective of the level of proficiency, the respondents were most familiar with LDOCE and OALDCE. Yet, in view of the fact that much information obtained from point eight of the questionnaire did not lend itself to further analysis, the conclusions might only approximate reality.

2.3.3. Concluding remarks

First of all, the data analyzed above bring to light important facts about the subjects involved in the study. The levels of tests taken each year by the university students of English as well as the information from the questionnaire for English teachers outside Poznań University made it possible to divide the participants into advanced and intermediate in English. The procedures adopted to conduct the research resulted in comparable proportions of students dealing with a test in each group, which was a prerequisite to circumventing serious problems in the analysis of the results from the experiment. The questionnaire for the participants, in turn, gave an insight into the role of the factors which could have had a bearing on their performance in the study, i.e., gender, familiarity with the extra information on codes (in the test and in the routinely consulted dictionaries) as well as experience in retrieving information on nouns, verbs and syntax in general from learners' dictionaries. The unbiased assignment of the subjects to the experimental conditions precluded any statistically important influence of the investigated variables on the obtained results; the conclusions drawn from the study are highly unlikely to be affected by the aforementioned factors.

The subjects' profile was built up on the basis of the information obtained from the questionnaire for students, which exposed their reference habits and needs as well as success in dictionary consultation. In general, the subjects proved reluctant to read about the codes used in the test, although the advanced students who made the effort considered the information clear and helpful. The degree of familiarity with the extra information on codes in the usually consulted pedagogical dictionaries, rather than the mini-dictionaries employed in the experiment, was also poor at the intermediate level, but better at the advanced one. Besides, it turns out that the subjects usually referred to dictionaries at home rather than during class time. This suggests a need for changes, especially for the sake of intermediate students, in whose case there is a stronger correlation between dictionary use in class and at home. Thus, consulting dictionaries at school might promote such learners' autonomy. Further, the subjects usually did not consider nouns or verbs more problematic. As regards those participants (in the minority) who did see a difference, it has been established that verbs led the advanced students to resort to dictionaries less often than nouns, but for the intermediate subjects the reverse was true.

The most surprising finding with respect to nouns, verbs and dictionary use is that success in retrieving information on either grammatical class was negatively correlated with the frequency of dictionary look-up. It follows that a greater frequency of dictionary consultation alone does not guarantee that users will learn how to use dictionaries effectively. This appears to be another argument for intensifying dictionary use in class, where reference skills are more likely to develop properly under the supervision of teachers. Besides, the analysis of the data from the questionnaire shows that pedagogical dictionaries are seen mainly as repositories of meaning, since it is meaning that users, regardless of their proficiency, most often want to find there. Syntax proves to be the second most important motive for dictionary consultation for the advanced, and for the intermediate – the third. It has nonetheless been found that syntactic information clusters closely with meaning at the advanced level, but at the intermediate one meaning is the principal and largely autonomous reason for dictionary consultation. Finally, the survey revealed a low degree of dictionary awareness among intermediate learners of English. Even though the situation was better among more proficient ones, the obtained results may not furnish incontestable facts due to the paucity of relevant information. Nonetheless, the gathered data suggest that LDOCE and OALDCE were most popular of the big five.

There is no denying that all the questionnaire results presented above are reliable only to the extent to which the respondents can be trusted. Limitations of this method of data collection, so clearly expounded in the oft-cited paper by Hatherall (1984), need to be taken cognizance of. In particular, the possibility of erroneous assessment of reference habits, needs and effects by the subjects themselves cannot be ruled out. Their claims, especially those where they assert that they are satisfied with dictionary look-ups, might have been caused by the desire to impress teachers or failure to recall (or even more likely – recognize) some problems. Since mismatches between student claims and reality must not be dismissed as impossible (Nesi – Haill 2002: 299-300), the experimental method was chosen for the study proper, designed primarily to gain a deeper insight into the usefulness of syntactic codes in learners' dictionaries. It is the findings from the experiment that are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter Three

Results

3.1. Answer analysis

3.1.1. Introduction

In the evaluation of the translations supplied by the subjects, meaning and syntax were decisive. In short, the translations had to convey the meaning of the corresponding Polish sentences and contain the tested syntactic features. The presence of the target syntactic properties was the sine qua non for accepting a translation as correct. The subjects' responses did not have to tally perfectly with the parts of the English sentences removed from them at the stage of creating the task, though. On condition that the headwords were correctly used in the target grammatical structures, some variety in wording or mistakes in non-target grammar could be accepted as long as the meaning of the source sentences was still conveyed.

In the translations completed by the subjects in noun tests, attention was paid to subject-verb agreement in number and appropriate use of articles to reflect countability.[1] The following examples illustrate the cases where the meaning of the Polish sentences was communicated by the correctly completed translations, but slight discrepancies in wording or non-target grammar were tolerated: *crew – people (chevet): chevet who often (usually) have quarrels / arguments* or *chevet who argue / quarrel a lot* instead of *chevet who often fight* (target syntax: plural concord); *resin (jactancy): a(n) impervious / watertight / leak-proof / impermeable / water-resistant jactancy like* rather than *a water-proof jactancy such as* (target syntax: countable use with the indefinite article).

In verb tests, the required verb patterns had to be employed.[2] Provided that the headwords were used in such patterns and the translations expressed the meaning of the Polish sentences, minor divergences in word choice or mistakes in non-target grammar were inconsequential, e.g., *in-*

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[1] See section 2.1.2.3.1 for details.

[2] Detailed information is given in section 2.1.2.3.2.

tend (jess): jess to travel / go to (the) Africa instead of *jess to visit Africa*; *preclude (purfle): purfle (the) parents getting in / making / coming into contact with* or *purfle (the) parents getting in touch with* rather than *purfle parents contacting*.

The following sections present an overview of the subjects' performance in the translation task and a thorough analysis of the correct translations which were supported by successful dictionary consultation. Specific sources of syntactic information which were selected by the participants in the supplied microstructures are not considered. They are analyzed in section 3.2.

3.1.2. Correct answers

3.1.2.1. Advanced students

The results obtained in the translation task by the AS are summarized in Table 63 and Figure 41. *CA*, *WA* and *NA* designate *correct answers, wrong answers* and *no answers*, respectively. The *correct answers* given on the basis of successful *dictionary* consultation are marked by *CAD*.[3] *N* stands for the total number of cases in which the items in a test were dealt with by the subjects, irrespective of the result. For each test, the number corresponds to the sum of correct, wrong and no answers (*CA*, *WA* and *NA*). In the table, the proportions of correct and wrong answers are accompanied by lower (*L*) and upper (*U*) limits of 95-percent confidence intervals. The last column (*CAD/CA*) shows what percentage of all correct answers in a test was given on the basis of successful dictionary consultation.

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[3] For each test item, dictionary consultation is considered successful if in the entry for the item a dictionary user underlined at least one source of grammatical information which was relevant to and helpful in the task. It thus corresponds to the sixth step in the seven-stage dictionary look-up model proposed by Hartmann (1989: 105), i.e., extracting the relevant information from the microstructure. Importantly, as shown in the graph by line density in area patterns, correct answers based on successful dictionary consultation (CAD) constitute part of all correct answers (CA). By the same token, the difference between the two sets reveals what proportion of correct answers was given without reference to any relevant source of syntactic information in the supplied entries. The issue gets more attention in section 3.2.2.

Table 63. Performance in the translation task: The AS

Test	Absolute terms					Percentage terms								
	CA	CAD	WA	NA	N	CA			CAD	WA			NA	CAD / CA
						L	%	U	%	L	%	U	%	
12 items														
NCA	751	550	248	9	1008	71.7	74.5	77.1	54.6	22.0	24.6	27.4	0.9	73.2
NCM	800	652	219	1	1020	75.8	78.4	80.8	63.9	19.1	21.5	24.1	0.1	81.5
NC0	751	563	244	1	996	72.6	75.4	78.0	56.5	21.9	24.5	27.3	0.1	75.0
VCA	950	908	63	7	1020	91.4	93.1	94.5	89.0	4.9	6.2	7.8	0.7	95.6
VCM	908	870	94	6	1008	88.1	90.1	91.8	86.3	7.7	9.3	11.3	0.6	95.8
VC0	932	900	100	0	1032	88.4	90.3	92.0	87.2	8.0	9.7	11.6	0.0	96.6
6PL– items														
NCA	321	259	178	5	504	60.7	63.7	66.5	51.4	32.5	35.3	38.4	1.0	80.7
NCM	355	303	154	1	510	65.5	69.6	73.4	59.4	26.4	30.2	34.3	0.2	85.4
NC0	345	289	152	1	498	65.1	69.3	73.2	58.0	26.6	30.5	34.7	0.2	83.8
VCA	456	442	49	5	510	86.4	89.4	91.8	86.7	7.3	9.6	12.5	1.0	96.9
VCM	433	422	66	5	504	82.6	85.9	88.7	83.7	10.4	13.1	16.3	1.0	97.5
VC0	448	435	68	0	516	83.6	86.8	89.5	84.3	10.5	13.2	16.4	0.0	97.1
6PL+ items														
NCA	430	291	70	4	504	82.0	85.3	88.1	57.7	11.1	13.9	17.2	0.8	67.7
NCM	445	349	65	0	510	84.1	87.3	89.9	68.4	10.1	12.7	15.9	0.0	78.4
NC0	406	274	92	0	498	77.9	81.5	84.7	55.0	15.3	18.5	22.1	0.0	67.5
VCA	494	466	14	2	510	95.0	96.9	98.1	91.4	1.6	2.7	4.6	0.4	94.3
VCM	475	448	28	1	504	91.9	94.2	96.0	88.9	3.9	5.6	7.9	0.2	94.3
VC0	484	465	32	0	516	91.4	93.8	95.6	90.1	4.4	6.2	8.6	0.0	96.1

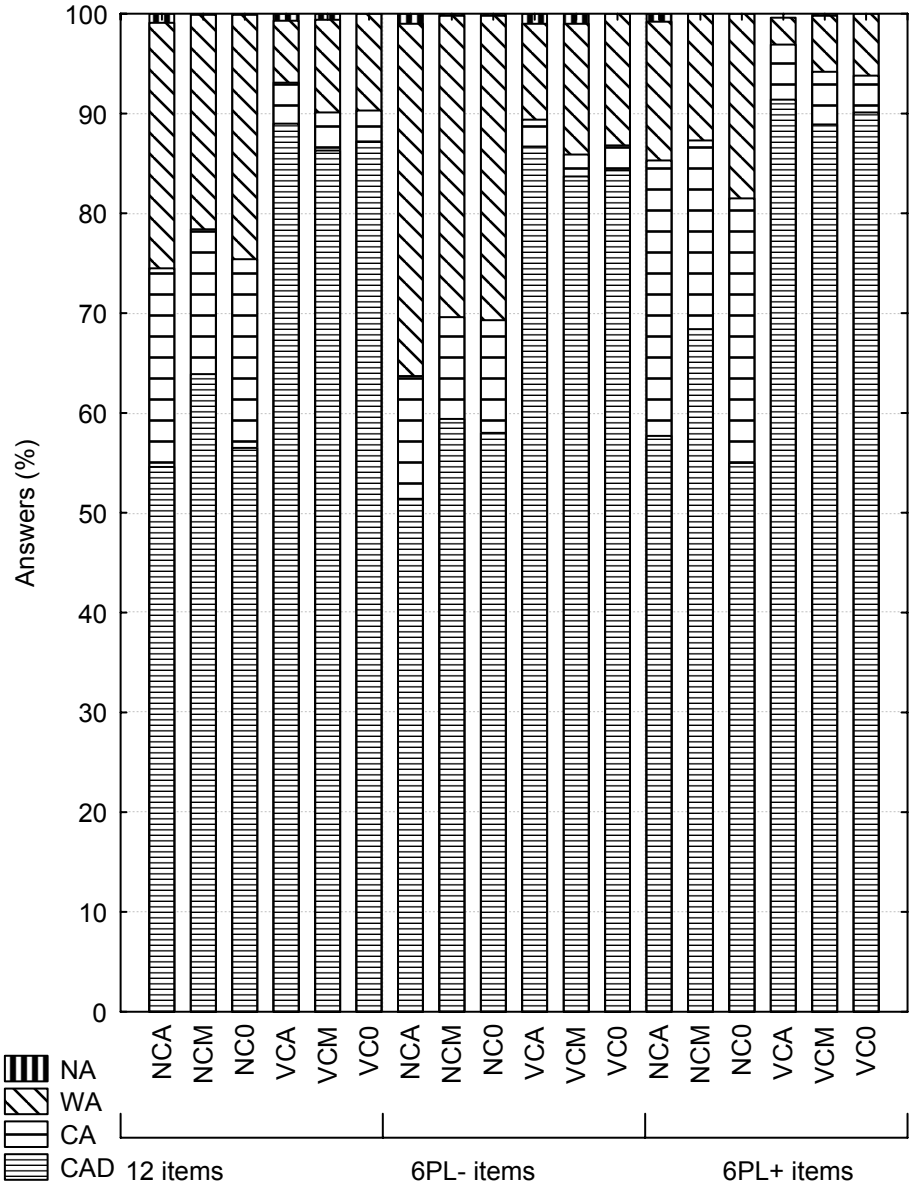

Figure 41. Performance in the translation task: The AS

As can be seen, the AS were largely successful in the experiment. The mutually exclusive confidence intervals show that in each test, correct translations were significantly more frequent than wrong ones, also at both levels of congruence. The cases were no responses were given are negligible. The data also reveal that the subjects obtained better results for verbs than nouns. Overall, translations in verb tests were correct in over 90 percent of all cases, and those in noun tests – only in about three fourths. Furthermore, there were more correct translations with PL+ than PL– items. When dealing with PL– items, the subjects were successful from over 60 (NCA) to almost 90 percent (VCA), but when using PL+ items – from over 80 (NC0) to almost 97 percent (VCA). Differences in translation correctness between the congruence levels (PL+ and PL–) were greater in noun than verb tests (over 17 and 7 percentage points on average, respectively). Yet, the non-overlapping confidence intervals for correct translations with the PL– and PL+ items in a test suggest that the difference was always statistically significant. Thus, similarity in syntactic behavior between Polish and English lexical items considerably facilitated the AS' dealing with the task in both noun and verb tests.

The last column in Table 63 shows that more correct answers followed from successful dictionary consultation in verb tests (about 95 percent) than in noun tests (from 75 to over 80 percent). Besides, in all tests, the proportion was higher for PL– than PL+ items. This might suggest that in the case of the latter, the subjects were more often making (correct) educated guesses relying on Polish syntax, and needed dictionaries more frequently when recourse to Polish could not help.

Hypothesis one posed in section 1.5 predicted no statistically significant effect of the mere presence of codes in the microstructure on dictionary-based language production. To assess the influence in the advanced group, the results of the Z test computed for the percentages of correct translations provided by the AS on the basis of successful dictionary consultation (CAD) in tests with and without codes are collated in Table 64. As the study is not limited to verifying the hypotheses formulated in chapter one, an attempt is also made to see whether the form of codes and the part of speech bore on the subjects' success in the test.

Table 64. The role of codes and POS in the AS' performance in the translation task (CAD)

Variable	Items/ congruence	Test	P1 (%)	Test	P2 (%)	Z test	p
Presence of codes	12 items	NCA	54.6	NC0	56.5	-0.884	0.38
		NCM	63.9	NC0	56.5	3.393	0.00*
		VCA	89.0	VC0	87.2	1.267	0.21
		VCM	86.3	VC0	87.2	-0.600	0.55
	6PL–	NCA	51.4	NC0	58.0	-2.112	0.03*
		NCM	59.4	NC0	58.0	0.445	0.66
		VCA	86.7	VC0	84.3	1.075	0.28
		VCM	83.7	VC0	84.3	-0.249	0.80
	6PL+	NCA	57.7	NC0	55.0	0.867	0.39
		NCM	68.4	NC0	55.0	4.382	0.00*
		VCA	91.4	VC0	90.1	0.694	0.49
		VCM	88.9	VC0	90.1	-0.640	0.52
Form of codes	12 items	NCA	54.6	NCM	63.9	-4.289	0.00*
		VCA	89.0	VCM	86.3	1.856	0.06
	6PL–	NCA	51.4	NCM	59.4	-2.570	0.01*
		VCA	86.7	VCM	83.7	1.317	0.19
	6PL+	NCA	57.7	NCM	68.4	-3.529	0.00*
		VCA	91.4	VCM	88.9	1.326	0.18
POS	12 items	NCA	54.6	VCA	89.0	-17.259	0.00*
		NCM	63.9	VCM	86.3	-11.649	0.00*
		NC0	56.5	VC0	87.2	-15.408	0.00*
	6PL–	NCA	51.4	VCA	86.7	-12.159	0.00*
		NCM	59.4	VCM	83.7	-8.577	0.00*
		NC0	58.0	VC0	84.3	-9.255	0.00*
	6PL+	NCA	57.7	VCA	91.4	-12.311	0.00*
		NCM	68.4	VCM	88.9	-7.942	0.00*
		NC0	55.0	VC0	90.1	-12.567	0.00*

The data show that the presence of either mainstream or alternative codes did not affect the AS' success in verb tests. In noun tests, entries with mainstream codes yielded about 25 percent more correct translations with PL+ nouns than codeless microstructures. The effect was observed also for all 12 nouns, where the difference, still highly significant (p=0.00), exceeded 13 percent. Alternative codes, by contrast, significantly (by about 12 percent, p=0.03) decreased the subjects' success with PL– nouns in comparison with codeless entries. No such influence was noted for PL+ nouns, and it wore off when all 12 nouns were considered.

The form of codes exerted a statistically significant effect on the correctness of answers only in noun tests. When noun entries featured mainstream codes, 17 percent more correct translations were provided than when alternative codes were present. This influence of the form of codes was observed at both congruence levels (PL– and PL+). It is noteworthy that the subjects achieved better results in verb tests with alternative codes than in verb tests with mainstream codes, but the difference only approaches significance (p=0.06).

Finally, as observed above, the AS were indeed much more successful in dealing with verbs than nouns, and this regularity obtained in tests with mainstream and alternative codes as well as in codeless ones. The values of the Z test in the table indicate that the effect of the part of speech proved to be not only statistically significant, but also much stronger than that of the form of codes or their presence.[4]

3.1.2.2. Intermediate students

The data on the IS' performance in the translation task are given in Table 65. The percentages are shown graphically in Figure 42.

[4] It was significant even at alpha= 0.000001, where Z= |5.323|, two-tailed.

Table 65. Performance in the translation task: The IS

Test	Absolute terms					Percentage terms								
	CA	CAD	WA	NA	N	CA			CAD	WA			NA	CAD/CA
						L	%	U	%	L	%	U	%	
12 items														
NCA	468	204	255	105	828	53.1	56.5	59.9	24.6	27.7	30.8	34.0	12.7	43.6
NCM	425	155	264	91	780	51.0	54.5	58.0	19.9	30.6	33.8	37.2	11.7	36.5
NC0	426	165	236	82	744	53.7	57.3	60.8	22.2	28.5	31.7	35.2	11.0	38.7
VCA	423	362	231	138	792	49.9	53.4	56.9	45.7	26.1	29.2	32.4	17.4	85.6
VCM	389	315	231	160	780	46.4	49.9	53.4	40.4	26.5	29.6	32.9	20.5	81.0
VC0	403	312	223	82	708	53.2	56.9	60.5	44.1	28.2	31.5	35.0	11.6	77.4
6PL– items														
NCA	136	76	212	66	414	29.2	32.9	36.8	18.4	48.3	51.2	54.1	15.9	55.9
NCM	115	60	223	52	390	25.2	29.5	34.2	15.4	52.2	57.2	62.0	13.3	52.2
NC0	129	69	195	48	372	30.0	34.7	39.6	18.5	47.3	52.4	57.4	12.9	53.5
VCA	160	148	159	77	396	35.7	40.4	45.3	37.4	35.4	40.2	45.1	19.4	92.5
VCM	149	128	157	84	390	33.5	38.2	43.1	32.8	35.5	40.3	45.2	21.5	85.9
VC0	150	121	162	42	354	37.3	42.4	47.6	34.2	40.6	45.8	51.0	11.9	80.7
6PL+ items														
NCA	332	128	43	39	414	76.1	80.2	83.7	30.9	7.8	10.4	13.7	9.4	38.6
NCM	310	95	41	39	390	75.2	79.5	83.2	24.4	7.8	10.5	14.0	10.0	30.6
NC0	297	96	41	34	372	75.5	79.8	83.6	25.8	8.2	11.0	14.6	9.1	32.3
VCA	263	214	72	61	396	61.6	66.4	70.9	54.0	14.7	18.2	22.3	15.4	81.4
VCM	240	187	74	76	390	56.6	61.5	66.2	47.9	15.4	19.0	23.2	19.5	77.9
VC0	253	191	61	40	354	66.6	71.5	75.9	54.0	13.7	17.2	21.5	11.3	75.5

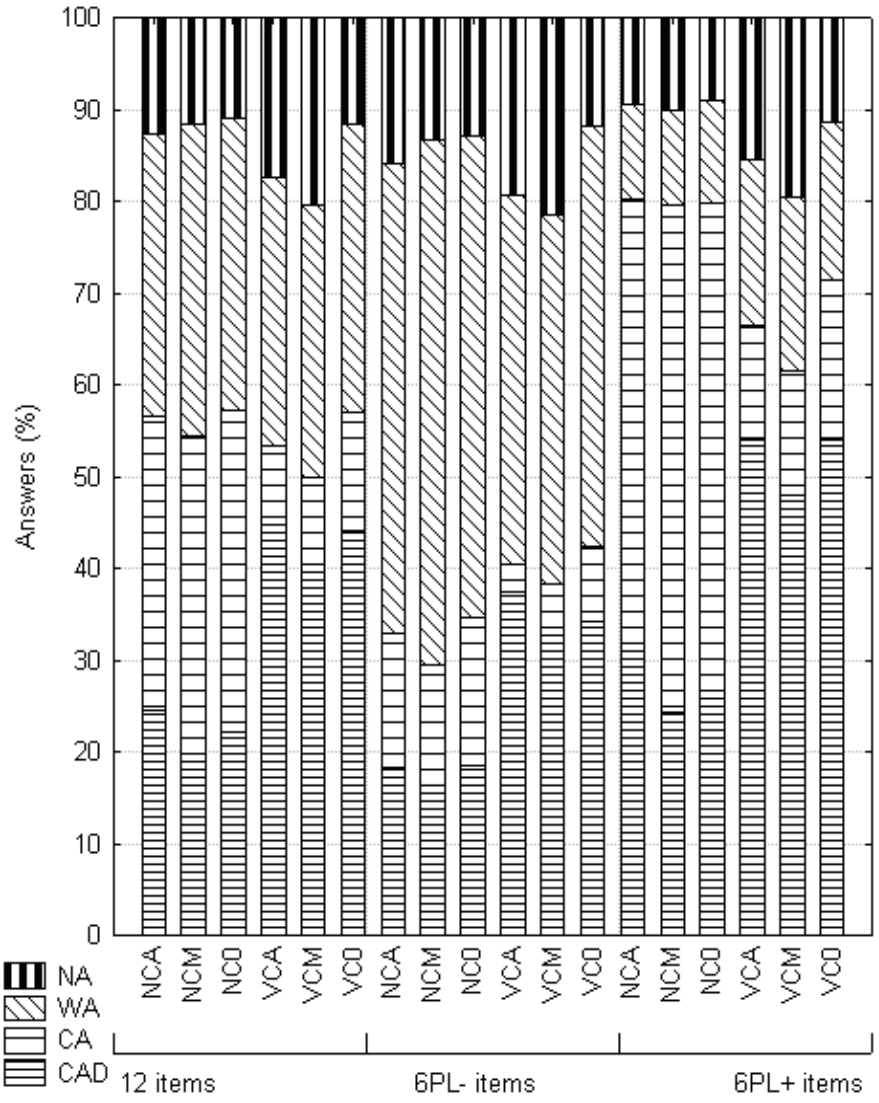

Figure 42. Performance in the translation task: The IS

As can be seen, the IS found the translation task quite difficult. In general, only around half (VCM) to about three fifths (NC0) of their answers in a test were correct. The success rates were markedly different for PL– and PL+ items; in the case of the former they ranged from 30 to 40 percent, and in the case of the latter – from 60 to 80 percent. While it seems that

there were around twice as many correct answers with PL+ items as with PL– items, the difference depended on the part of speech and was larger for nouns than verbs. The IS were successful in dealing with PL+ nouns over twice as often again as in coping with PL– nouns, whereas correct translations with PL+ verbs were only about 60 percent more frequent than those with PL– verbs. Yet, the mutually exclusive confidence intervals show that the differences between the congruence levels were always statistically significant.

Conclusions about the role of the part of speech depend on congruence. For PL+ items, the translation success rate was higher for nouns. Correct translations with PL+ nouns were from slightly over 10 percent (NC0) to around 30 percent (NCM) more frequent than those with PL+ verbs in the corresponding tests (i.e., VC0 and VCM, respectively). However, for PL– items, the relation is reversed; the IS obtained better results when dealing with verbs than nouns, and the difference extended from over 20 percent (VC0 – NC0, VCA – NCA) to about 30 percent (VCM – NCM). When the levels of congruence are disregarded and all target items are considered, the proportions of correct translations prove only slightly higher in noun tests than in the corresponding verb tests. The largest difference approximated 9 percent (NCM – VCM).

It is striking that a low proportion of correct translations produced by the IS followed from dictionary consultation, as shown in the last column of Table 65. The percentage of such answers was the lowest for PL+ items, in the case of which the subjects apparently drew on their mother tongue. Only about one third of correct translations with PL+ nouns and three fourths of those with PL+ verbs were grounded on the information found in dictionary entries. In the set of PL– items, around half of all correct translations in noun tests and 80-90 percent in verb tests were justified by reference to the mini-dictionaries. Clearly, then, the percentage of answers given on the basis of the supplied entries was always lower for nouns than verbs. When the levels of congruence are neglected, the proportions were around two fifths and four fifths, respectively.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the IS quite often failed to provide any translation. Whereas in the group of the AS the proportion of missing answers did not exceed one percent of all the cases in a test (Table 63), in the group of the IS it ranged from over one tenth (NC0) to one fifth (VCM). Importantly, the subjects who took part in the study did not report that the time allotted to them was insufficient. Thus, the number of miss-

ing translations might be indicative of the fact that the IS were far more often in a quandary when doing the task than the AS.

Table 66 provides the results of the Z test to get a deeper insight into the effects of codes and the part of speech. Like before, only the data on the correct translations which followed from successful dictionary consultation are subjected to scrutiny.

Table 66. The role of codes and POS in the IS' performance in the translation task (CAD)

Variable	Items/ congruence	Test	P1 (%)	Test	P2 (%)	Z test	p
Presence of codes	12 items	NCA	24.6	NC0	22.2	1.149	0.25
		NCM	19.9	NC0	22.2	-1.105	0.27
		VCA	45.7	VC0	44.1	0.637	0.52
		VCM	40.4	VC0	44.1	-1.437	0.15
	6PL–	NCA	18.4	NC0	18.5	-0.069	0.95
		NCM	15.4	NC0	18.5	-1.164	0.24
		VCA	37.4	VC0	34.2	0.910	0.36
		VCM	32.8	VC0	34.2	-0.393	0.69
	6PL+	NCA	30.9	NC0	25.8	1.585	0.11
		NCM	24.4	NC0	25.8	-0.461	0.64
		VCA	54.0	VC0	54.0	0.023	0.98
		VCM	47.9	VC0	54.0	-1.637	0.10
Form of codes	12 items	NCA	24.6	NCM	19.9	2.294	0.02*
		VCA	45.7	VCM	40.4	2.131	0.03*
	6PL–	NCA	18.4	NCM	15.4	1.124	0.26
		VCA	37.4	VCM	32.8	1.337	0.18
	6PL+	NCA	30.9	NCM	24.4	2.076	0.04*
		VCA	54.0	VCM	47.9	1.708	0.09
POS	12 items	NCA	24.6	VCA	45.7	-8.891	0.00*
		NCM	19.9	VCM	40.4	-8.829	0.00*
		NC0	22.2	VC0	44.1	-8.877	0.00*
	6PL–	NCA	18.4	VCA	37.4	-6.048	0.00*
		NCM	15.4	VCM	32.8	-5.693	0.00*
		NC0	18.5	VC0	34.2	-4.790	0.00*
	6PL+	NCA	30.9	VCA	54.0	-6.660	0.00*
		NCM	24.4	VCM	47.9	-6.856	0.00*
		NC0	25.8	VC0	54.0	-7.754	0.00*

The results show that the presence of codes had no statistically significant bearing on the results obtained by the IS in any test. As for the form of codes, the data for all 12 items suggest that alternative codes encouraged considerably more correct translations than mainstream ones in both noun and verb tests; the difference approached 25 percent in noun tests and exceeded 13 percent in verb tests. When congruence is additionally taken into account, the same result can be observed for PL+ nouns; there were over 25 percent more correct translations in the test with alternative codes than in the one with mainstream ones. The effect of the form of codes for PL+ and PL– verbs as well as PL– nouns was not statistically significant. Finally, like in the more advanced group, the part of speech strongly influenced the subjects' success in the translation task, which proved to be almost two times easier in the case of verbs than nouns.

3.1.2.3. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

To compare dictionary-based success in the translation task at the two proficiency levels, the pertinent percentages and the results of the Z test are given in Table 67.

Table 67. Dictionary-based correct translations (CAD) in both proficiency groups

Test	12 items				6 PL– items				6 PL+ items			
	AS	**IS**	**Z test**	**p**	**AS**	**IS**	**Z test**	**p**	**AS**	**IS**	**Z test**	**p**
NCA	54.6	24.6	12.970	0.00*	51.4	18.4	10.344	0.00*	57.7	30.9	8.118	0.00*
NCM	63.9	19.9	18.622	0.00*	59.4	15.4	13.342	0.00*	68.4	24.4	13.105	0.00*
NC0	56.5	22.2	14.370	0.00*	58.0	18.5	11.708	0.00*	55.0	25.8	8.623	0.00*
VCA	89.0	45.7	19.973	0.00*	86.7	37.4	15.442	0.00*	91.4	54.0	12.882	0.00*
VCM	86.3	40.4	20.370	0.00*	83.7	32.8	15.515	0.00*	88.9	47.9	13.382	0.00*
VC0	87.2	44.1	19.229	0.00*	84.3	34.2	15.122	0.00*	90.1	54.0	12.167	0.00*

Clearly, in each test, the AS provided significantly more correct answers based on dictionary consultation than the IS. Overall, in verb tests, the AS were about two times more successful than the IS. Their advantage was even greater in noun tests; in NCM the proportion of dictionary-based

correct translations was over three times higher for the AS than the IS. When congruence is taken into account, differences between the proficiency levels prove greater for PL– than PL+ items. In the translation task involving PL– items, the AS were from over two times (VCA) to about four times (NCM) more successful than the IS. When they dealt with PL+ items, in turn, their scores were from about 70 percent (VC0 and VCA) to about 180 percent (NCM) better than in the intermediate group.

In conclusion, the analysis of answers given by both groups of subjects shows that the AS achieved much better results than the IS, and that the syntactic similarity between Polish and English lexical items increased both the IS' and the AS' success in the translation task. The investigation has also shown that the presence of codes did not affect the overall performance of the less advanced group, as predicted in hypothesis one in section 1.5. At the higher level of proficiency, incorporating mainstream codes into noun entries resulted in considerably more correct translations than offering codeless microstructures to the subjects. This statistically significant effect, evident when all target nouns are taken into account, was mainly due to enriching entries for PL+ nouns with mainstream codes; it is in their case that the codes contributed most to the grammatical correctness of the supplied translations. In verb tests as well as in noun tests with alternative codes, the presence of encoded syntactic information had no statistically significant effect on the subjects' overall success in the translation task.[5] Thus, in the advanced group, hypothesis one cannot be accepted for mainstream codes in noun tests, in which they significantly increased the number of correct translations provided by the AS. Otherwise, the general effect of embedding codes in the microstructure was not statistically significant at the advanced level, as suggested in hypothesis one.

It has also been found that if codes were already present in the microstructure, their form usually had a bearing on the subjects' performance in the translation task. In noun tests, the AS achieved far better results when they consulted entries with mainstream codes than those with alternative

[5] Although, as shown in Table 64, translations with PL– nouns were more grammatically correct when the AS had codeless entries at their disposal than those with alternative codes, this effect was counteracted by the positive, though not yet statistically significant role which alternative codes played in translations with PL+ nouns. Accordingly, the presence of alternative codes in noun entries proved to be of no consequence to aggregate translation results with nouns.

ones. In verb tests, the AS produced more correct translations when they referred to entries with alternative codes, but the difference was not quite statistically significant at alpha=0.05. In the group of the IS, the subjects' results were significantly better in both noun and verb tests when entries offered alternative codes.

Finally, at both proficiency levels, translations with verbs were more often correct than those with nouns. Syntactic properties of nouns could have wrongly appeared easier to guess than the syntax of verbs, and, as observed above, the subjects much less often decided to verify them in dictionaries. Some subjects, especially at the intermediate level, apparently forgot about articles and plural subject-verb concord in the case of collective nouns in the singular.[6] It might have been easier for the subjects to decide whether verb patterns in English and Polish converge for specific verbs than remember about the features of noun syntax which are absent from Polish.

3.1.3. Wrong answers: PL– items

3.1.3.1. Preliminaries

The present section attempts to establish whether wrong translations could have been caused by the syntax of Polish nouns and verbs underlined in the sentences offered for translation. The grammatical constructions in which the Polish words were used were impossible only for English PL– nouns and verbs; in their case any mapping of the Polish syntactic structures onto English would result in incorrect translations. Consequently, the following discussion is limited to PL– nouns and verbs.[7]

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[6] See section 2.1.2.3.1. Subject-verb concord and marking the count-mass distinction with the help of articles are among the last aspects of verb- and noun-related morphology, respectively, acquired by learners of English (Hawkins 2001: 35, 48, 239). An analysis of which of them is more difficult for Polish learners of the language falls outside the purview of the book. A discussion of this point can be found in Dziemianko (2008).

[7] In the case of PL+ items, in turn, such mapping would yield correct answers. Wrong translations with PL+ nouns and verbs usually stemmed from the failure to use the items in the first place.

As explained in section 2.1.2.3.1, three PL– target nouns: *hardship (chinch), resin (jactancy)* and *veneer (turpeth)* had to be preceded by the indefinite article in English translations. The other three: *cast (brogan), crew (chevet)* and *management (fanion)*, although used in the singular, required verbs in the plural. Virtually all wrong translations with the six PL– nouns resulted from the subjects' mapping the rules of Polish grammar onto English (the zero article used in place of the indefinite one and singular rather than plural subject-verb concord with nouns in the singular).[8]

Incorrect translations in verb tests were more difficult to deal with. Naturally, there were translations modeled on the syntax of the underlined Polish verbs. Sometimes, however, the patterns in the subjects' incorrect translations were different from those in which the selected Polish verbs can function. Some such patterns evoked associations with the syntax of certain English synonyms of the originally selected PL– verbs, eventually substituted in entries by much rarer words. Others could not be straightforwardly related to the syntax of either the Polish verbs or any synonyms of the PL– English verbs.[9] To illustrate the prob-

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[8] The syntax of the English and Polish nouns is contrasted in sections 2.1.2.3.1.1.2 and 2.1.2.3.1.2.2. There were just four instances, all in the advanced group, where instead of the indefinite article, the definite one was used. After careful consideration, such answers were classified as incorrect ones. See section 2.1.2.3.1.1.1 for justification. Interestingly, the sparse use of the definite article by the subjects appears to be at odds with "indiscriminant overproduction of *the*" by learners of English (Thomas 1989: 352), documented also by Parrish (1987), Master (1997) or Ionin, Ko and Wexler (2004). The non-use of the indefinite and definite articles seems to confirm, in turn, Ekiert's (2004: 17) conclusion about "massive overuse of the zero article" among Polish learners of English. Nonetheless, the results of the present investigation should not be taken to generally diverge from or support such findings, because the subjects had access to dictionary entries where PL– reclassifiable nouns were shown in examples with the indefinite and zero articles. The absence of any context where they would be preceded by the definite article could have seriously affected the participants' decisions concerning article use.

[9] Non-native transfer (Ringbom 2007: 78-87) from languages other than English, or "the influence of one L2 (using the broad sense of this term) over another" (Gass – Selinker 2008: 151) is not considered, because the subjects' knowledge of different foreign languages was not verified in the study. In what follows, interference, or negative L1 transfer in L2 production is defined after Ringbom (2007: 30-31) as "absence of relevant concrete (positive) transfer, leading to subsequent wrong assumptions about crosslinguistic similarities between L1 and L2. Positive transfer could then be

lem with classifying incorrect translations with PL– verbs, selected examples are given in Table 68. In the table, the symbols in the first row signify wrong answers (*WA*) modeled on the syntax of the Polish verbs given in the sentences to be translated (*P*+), English synonyms of the PL– verbs (*E*+) and, finally, neither of these (*P–/E–*). The table also gives possible syntactic patterns of the Polish verbs (*Polish patterns*) and the patterns in which the English headwords were shown in their entries (*English patterns*). Bold typeface highlights those which were employed in the Polish sentences in the test and those which had to be used by the subjects in translation. The syntactic codes for the Polish verbs, adapted from the codes in ISJP, cited in Table 26 in section 2.1.2.2, were simplified and rendered parallel to formal codes for the English verbs. For the sake of simplicity, functional categories are avoided. In the column headed *WA: E*+, the synonyms on whose syntax the adduced incorrect translations could have been modeled are indicated in italics along with codes, taken from OALDCE7.[10]

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described as the application of at least partially correct perceptions or assumptions of cross-linguistic similarity". However, only negative transfer is immediately visible to the researcher (Ringbom 2007: 6), which further justifies focusing on PL– nouns and verbs in the analysis of incorrect translations. The aforecited definitions by Ringbom imply that transfer consists in cross-linguistic influence. Nonetheless, learners do not limit their search for similarities to their mother tongue; they also try to make use of assumed intralingual similarities or analogies, which hinge on what they have already learnt of the target language (Dušková 1969: 21, 23, 25). In other words, both cross-linguistic and intralinguistic knowledge is important to the learner of another language, and the relevance of the latter increases with developing proficiency in the foreign language (Ringbom 2007: 1). Intralingual errors stem from imperfect knowledge of the target language and building up hypotheses about the language on the basis of the yet limited experience with it (Erdoğan 2005: 266). The possibility of the subjects' relying on the syntax of synonyms of the originally selected PL– English verbs cannot be dismissed, considering the fact that "[i]n both our L1 and our L2, we establish networks which may be semantic networks, syntactic networks (words behave in similar/same ways syntactically), phonological networks, and so forth. Essentially, a lexical network involves the linking of words in some way" (Gass – Selinker 2008: 458).

[10] The relation of synonymy was established on the basis of *The Oxford Thesaurus*, second edition (Urdang 1997).

Table 68. Examples of wrong translations with PL– verbs

Items	Polish patterns	English patterns	WA: P+	WA: E+	WA: P-/E-
involve (loricate) wymagać	**V from n that** V from n n	V n V -ing **V n -ing**	loricates from drivers that they should buy scratch cards; loricates from drivers buying scratch cards	loricates drivers to buy *(require)* *V n to inf*	–
envisage (brail) przewidy-wać	**V that** V n V wh	V -ing **V n -ing** V -wh	brail that UN troops will replace Iraqi forces	brail UN troops to replace Iraqi forces *(expect)* *V n to inf*	brail UN troops replace Iraqi forces
admit (aurify) przyznać	**V that** V n V n that	V n **V -ing** V n to inf	aurified that he feels / felt a little nervous	he aurified himself a little nervous *(confess)* *V n adj*	aurify feel
petition (osculate) wnosić	**V that** Vfor/about n	V n **V n to inf** V to inf	osculate that local authorities provide better bus services	–	osculate provide better bus services
presume (roup) przypu-szczać	**V that** V wh	V n **V n to inf** V n adj	rouped that they were/are bunkers	–	rouped them being bunkers
pronounce (transude) uznać	**V that**	V n n V n adj **V n to inf**	transude that he has/had a disordered imagination	–	transude him by disordered imagination

The syntactic patterns used in translations were seen as transferred from Polish if they coincided with those in which the Polish verbs were given in the sentences offered for translation, or those in which the Polish verbs could be used in a given sense, as shown by ISJP codes (e.g., *involve* (*loricate*)). There were a few cases, though, where the pattern in a translation was possible for the Polish equivalent and an English synonym, like in the case of *admit (aurify)* followed by a *that*-clause, which can be used with the Polish *przyznać*, but also with the English *confess*. Nonetheless, such instances were eventually treated as transferred from Polish, the subjects'

native language. For one thing, the patterns in question usually featured prominently in the parts of the Polish sentences which had to be translated into English. Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that it is such explicit Polish constructions that could have been mapped onto English headwords in the first place. For another, finding an alternative English verb to denote the activity explained in the supplied entry might have been a difficult cognitive process, especially for the less advanced, let alone mapping the syntactic pattern of such a verb onto the target. As infrequent and semantically unrelated substitutes were used in place of the originally selected PL– English verbs defined in the entries, the task of identifying synonyms of the latter, or even guessing the PL– verbs themselves, must have been doubly difficult.[11]

Finally, the syntactic properties of the Polish verbs used in the test or those of the PL– English verbs or their synonyms cannot account for the translations exemplified in the last column. In some cases, complementation patterns did not even include the required number of constituents, because objects or complements were missing. While possible reasons for such incorrect answers are unclear, it is difficult to put them down to the influence of either Polish or English.

In what follows, wrong translations with PL– nouns and verbs given by the AS are discussed first, and then – those supplied by the IS. For each proficiency level, nouns are divided according to the syntactic features tested, different for Polish and English. In the analysis which centers on verbs, the causes of incorrectness are traced to the two languages involved.

3.1.3.2. Advanced students

3.1.3.2.1. 6PL– nouns

Table 69 and Figure 43 show data on the AS' incorrect translations with PL– nouns. *ART* designates wrong article usage to mark the count-mass distinction. *PC* stands for errors in plural concord. The results of the Z test make it possible to assess the role of the presence and form of codes on the frequency of these two error types.

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[11] Compare the discussion in section 2.1.2.2.

Table 69. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The AS

Test	WA 6PL–	3PL–		Plural Concord			Articles		
		PC	ART	L	%	U	L	%	U
NCA	178	86	92	38.0	48.3	58.7	44.4	51.7	58.9
NCM	154	81	73	41.5	52.6	63.6	39.7	47.4	55.3
NC0	152	84	68	44.0	55.3	66.3	37.1	44.7	52.7

PC	Test	types	Z test	p	ART	Test	types	Z test	p
	NCA	NCM	-0.778	0.44		NCA	NCM	0.778	0.44
	NCA	NC0	-1.259	0.21		NCA	NC0	1.259	0.21
	NCM	NC0	-0.468	0.64		NCM	NC0	0.468	0.64

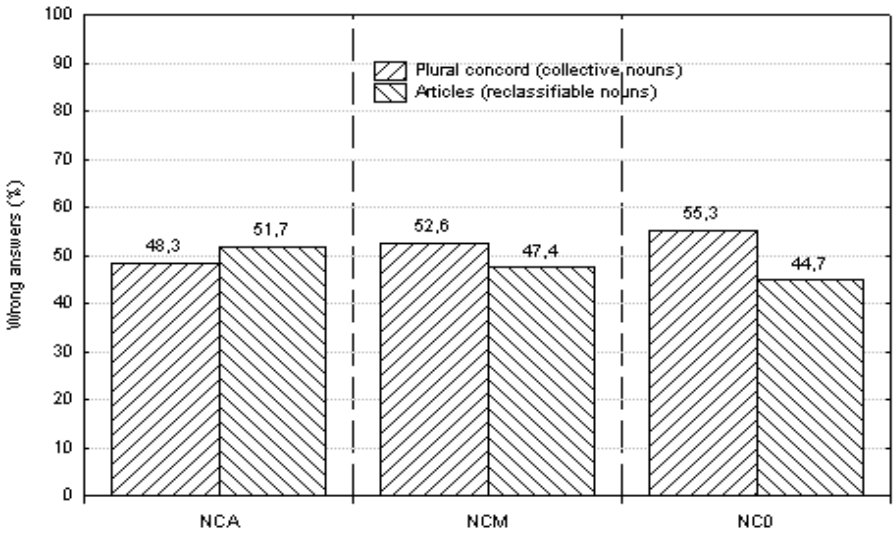

Figure 43. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The AS

The data reveal that in each test with codes (NCA and NCM), the proportions of incorrect translations with PL– nouns were divided almost in half. The largely overlapping confidence intervals indicate that the indefinite article and plural subject-verb concord with collective nouns in the singular were indeed equally problematic to the AS. The difference between the proportions was the largest in the test with codeless entries, where there were about 25 percent more incorrect translations with collective than reclassifiable

nouns. Yet, this difference has no statistical significance, either.[12] Finally, the results of the Z test show that no dictionary type was more helpful in preventing the subjects from supplying wrong answers of either kind.

3.1.3.2.2. 6PL– verbs

The data necessary to analyze incorrect translations supplied by the AS when dealing with PL– verbs are shown in Table 70 and Figure 44.

Table 70. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS

Test	WA 6PL-	Source			P+ (%)			E+ (%)			P–/E– (%)		
		P+	E+	P–/E–	L	%	U	L	%	U	L	%	U
VCA	49	29	0	20	45.3	59.2	71.8	0.0	0.0	7.3	28.2	40.8	54.8
VCM	66	38	1	27	45.6	57.6	68.8	0.3	1.5	8.1	29.9	40.9	53.0
VC0	68	45	2	21	54.3	66.2	76.3	0.8	2.9	10.1	21.2	30.9	42.6

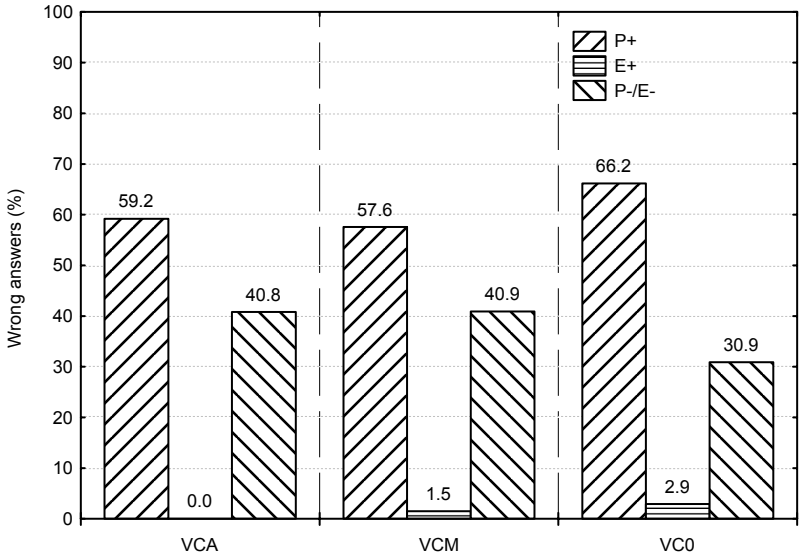

Figure 44. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS

[12] The proportion of wrong answers resulting from the misuse of articles (44.7%) belongs to the confidence interval around the percentage of wrong answers attributed to concord (55.3%), which suggests that the proportions compared are similar (Smith 1997).

As can be seen, the AS who gave wrong answers in verb tests most often fell back on their mother tongue. In each test, about three fifths of all incorrect translations with PL– verbs were due to interference from Polish. The second most frequent reason proved difficult to identify; in about one third (VC0) to two fifths of all cases (VCA, VCM), the syntactic patterns employed by the AS cannot be accounted for by negative transfer or intralinguistic syntactic similarities between synonyms in English. The confidence intervals indicate that in each verb test, interference from Polish was significantly more frequent than the instances of not drawing on either Polish or English. Finally, it transpires that the AS hardly ever relied on the syntax of English synonyms.

The Z test, whose results are tabulated below, makes it possible to see whether codes had any influence on the investigated causes of translation incorrectness. The few cases where the subjects drew analogies between the syntax of English synonyms are not considered.

Table 71. The influence of codes on incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The AS

P+				**P–/E–**			
Test	**types**	**Z test**	**p**	**Test**	**types**	**Z test**	**p**
VCA	VCM	0.173	0.86	VCA	VCM	-0.010	0.99
VCA	VC0	-0.774	0.44	VCA	VC0	1.111	0.27
VCM	VC0	-1.025	0.31	VCM	VC0	1.210	0.23

Clearly, neither the presence of codes nor their form prevented the subjects from resorting to the syntax of Polish equivalents in translation. These factors did not affect the proportion of translations which cannot be explained by negative transfer from Polish or drawing analogies between English verbs, either.

3.1.3.3. Intermediate students

3.1.3.3.1. 6PL– nouns

The data on incorrect translations with PL– nouns produced by the IS are supplied in Table 72 and Figure 45.

Table 72. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The IS

Test	WA 6PL–	3PL–		Plural concord			Articles		
		PC	ART	L	%	U	L	%	U
NCA	212	90	122	33.2	42.5	52.0	50.8	57.6	64.0
NCM	223	93	130	32.7	41.7	51.0	51.7	58.3	64.6
NC0	195	82	113	32.5	42.1	52.0	50.9	58.0	64.7

PC	Test	types	Z test	p	ART	Test	types	Z test	p
	NCA	NCM	0.158	0.87		NCA	NCM	-0.158	0.87
	NCA	NC0	0.082	0.93		NCA	NC0	-0.082	0.93
	NCM	NC0	-0.072	0.74		NCM	NC0	0.072	0.74

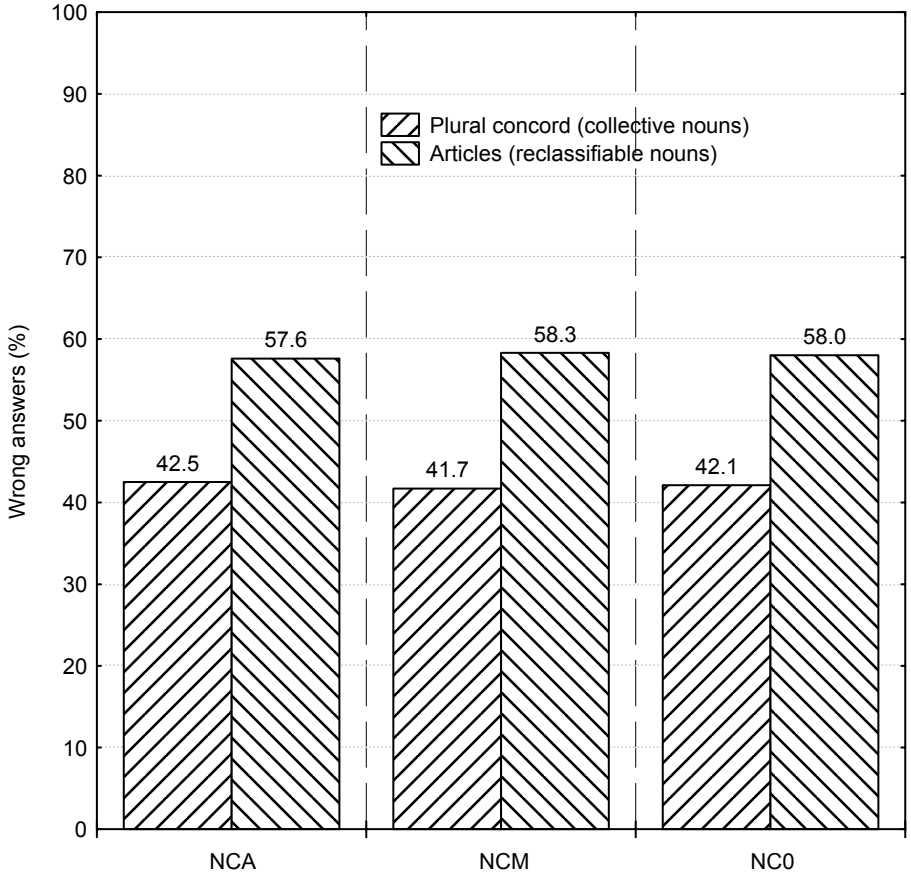

Figure 45. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns: The IS

It transpires that the indefinite article was more difficult for the IS than plural subject-verb concord with collective nouns in the singular. Incorrect translations due to problems with the indefinite article constituted around three fifths of all wrong answers involving PL– nouns in a test, while those caused by concord – about two fifths. The confidence intervals, none of which overlaps the other percentage in the same test, suggest that the difference between the proportions of incorrect translations caused by these two reasons was always statistically significant.[13] The results of the Z test, in turn, show that neither the presence of codes nor their form had a bearing on the proportions of wrong translations given by the IS because of problems with concord or the indefinite article.

3.1.3.3.2. 6PL– verbs

Details on incorrect translations with PL– verbs in the intermediate group are given in Table 73 and Figure 46.

Table 73. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS

Test	WA	Source			P+ (%)			E+ (%)			P–/E– (%)		
		P+	E+	P–/E–	L	%	U	L	%	U	L	%	U
VCA	159	122	4	33	69.6	76.7	82.6	1.0	2.5	6.3	15.2	20.8	27.7
VCM	157	113	3	41	64.5	72.0	78.4	0.7	1.9	5.5	19.9	26.1	33.5
VC0	162	122	5	35	68.1	75.3	81.3	1.3	3.1	7.0	16.0	21.6	28.6

[13] It is worth pointing out that these conclusions differ from those obtained by Dziemianko (2008), who shows that using the indefinite and zero articles to reflect noun countability and ensuring proper subject-verb concord with collective nouns were comparably difficult for Polish learners of English. However, correct translations were analyzed there, while only wrong ones are examined above. Considering the high proportion of missing translations in the intermediate group, pointed out in section 3.1.2.2, convergent results should not be expected.

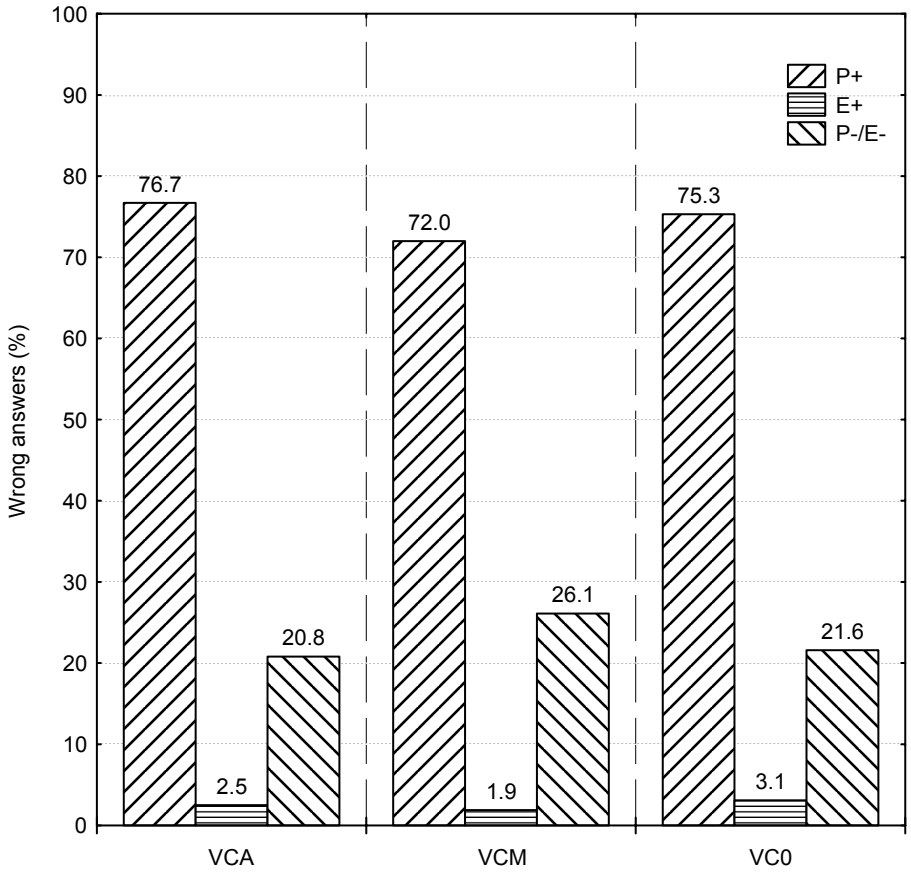

Figure 46. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS

The table and the figure show that, like the AS, the IS most often mapped the syntax of Polish equivalents onto English headwords; negative transfer from Polish accounted for about three fourths of incorrect translations in a verb test. The cases of interference from Polish were significantly more frequent than those which cannot be put down to the subjects' reliance on either Polish or English, which constituted about one fifth of wrong translations in VC0 and VCA, and over one fourth in VCM. The number of translations motivated by intralinguistic syntactic similarities between synonyms in English was negligible.

Table 74 makes it possible to see whether codes had a bearing on the most frequent reasons for incorrect translations (*P*+ and *P*– */E*–).

Table 74. The influence of codes on incorrect translations with PL– verbs: The IS

P+				P–/E–			
Test	**types**	**Z test**	**p**	**Test**	**types**	**Z test**	**p**
VCA	VCM	0.968	0.33	VCA	VCM	0.365	0.75
VCA	VC0	0.298	0.77	VCA	VC0	-0.310	0.76
VCM	VC0	-0.676	0.50	VCM	VC0	-0.671	0.50

Clearly, like in the group of the AS, neither the presence of codes nor their form discouraged the subjects from drawing on Polish when completing the partial translations in verb tests; the proportions of wrong answers caused by interference from Polish were comparable in all of them. Likewise, the factors in question did not affect the frequency of incorrect translations which did not result from relying on the syntax of either Polish equivalents or English synonyms.

3.1.3.4. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

3.1.3.4.1. 6PL– nouns

To investigate the effect of proficiency on the reasons for wrong translations with PL– nouns, relevant data are juxtaposed in Table 75 and shown graphically in Figure 47.

Table 75. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns across proficiency levels

Test	**Plural concord**				**Articles**			
	AS	**IS**	**Z test**	**S**	**AS**	**IS**	**Z test**	**S**
NCA	48.3	42.5	1.159	0.25	51.7	57.6	-1.159	0.25
NCM	52.6	41.7	2.086	0.04*	47.4	58.3	-2.086	0.04*
NC0	55.3	42.1	2.444	0.01*	44.7	58.0	-2.444	0.01*

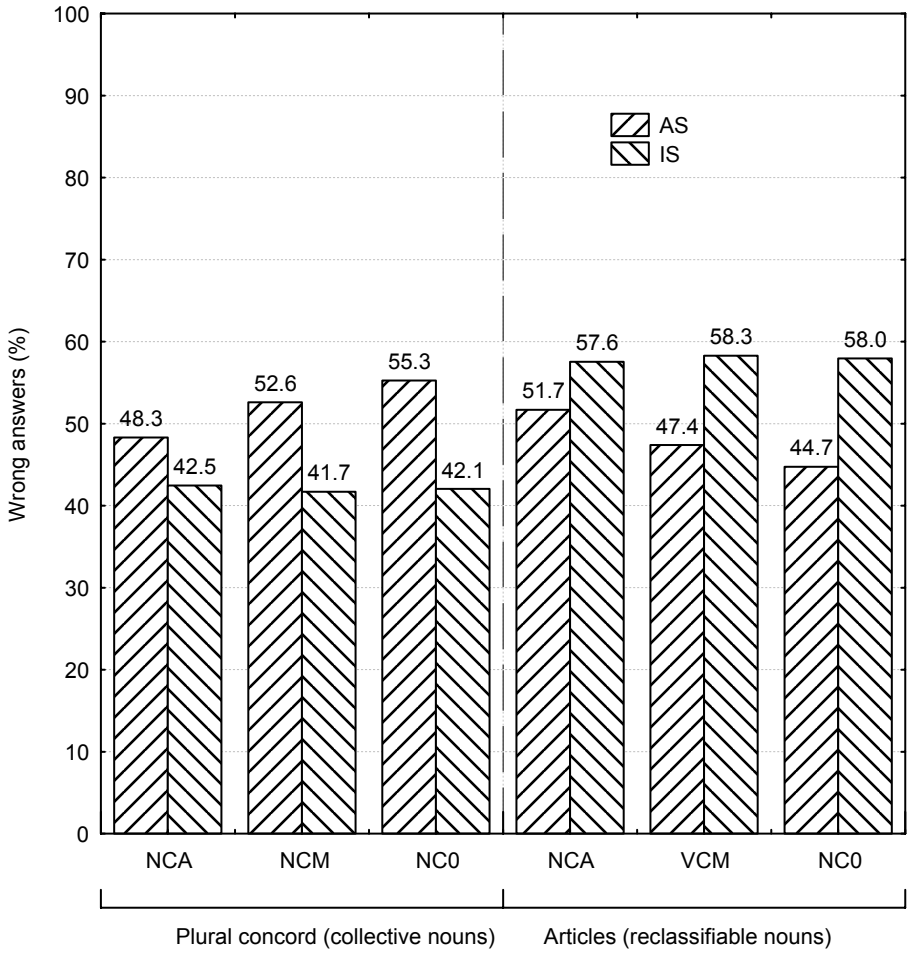

Figure 47. Incorrect translations with PL– nouns across proficiency levels

The data show that, in general, the AS had more problems with plural concord, but found the use of the indefinite article easier than the IS. As regards plural verb concord with collective nouns in the singular, in NC0 the AS provided over 30 percent more incorrect translations than the IS, and in NCM – over 25 percent more. With respect to the indefinite article used with reclassifiable nouns, the relations were reversed: the IS made about 30 and 25 percent more errors than the AS in NC0 and NCM, respectively. In both tests, the difference between the two proficiency levels was statistically significant. It is only in NCA, where it approximated six

percentage points for both reclassifiable and collective nouns, that statistical significance was not reached.

As already mentioned in section 3.1.3.1, in virtually all incorrect translations with PL– collective nouns the subjects failed to recognize the need for a plural verb and tried to achieve singular concord. It is possible that the AS made more errors because, in contrast to the IS, they had already acquired verb-related morphemes and their functions, and could use them in practice. The IS, in turn, whose acquisition of English as a foreign language was at a less advanced stage, might also have tried to use verbs in the singular but simply failed to add the suffix *–s*, not yet perfectly acquired, hence fewer errors. Such an explanation seems plausible for two PL– nouns. In the case of *crew (chevet)*, the verb *fight* had to be used in the third person plural in Present Simple: *often fight*.[14] Although the other PL– collective verb, *management (fanion*), was originally followed by *are taking*, the verb *take* in the third person plural in Present Simple was also treated as a correct completion of the partial translation in the test, considering the absence of any aspectual clues in the supplied sentence.[15] This means that the unmarked forms of the two verbs were accepted. While it seems that the IS were less likely to recognize the need for plural subject-verb concord, and thus more likely to use the verbs in the singular, their yet inadequate mastery of verb-related morphemes might have prevented them from adding the third person singular present tense suffix *–s* and making an error. Indeed, the proportion of incorrect translations was for each noun higher for the AS than the IS (*crew (chevet)* – AS: 14.7%, IS: 5.7%; *management (fanion)* – AS: 18.4%, IS: 14.1%). However, in the case of *cast* (*brogan*), the third PL– collective noun which required plural concord, the copula *to be* had to be used in the third person plural in Present Simple: *are now at least middle-aged*. Copulas, and *be* forms in particular, are mastered by foreign learners of English earlier than suffixed concord endings, including the notoriously difficult marking of subject-verb concord in the third person singular (Bailey – Madden – Krashen 1974: 240, Krashen 1981: 59, Zobl – Liceras 1994: 169-172, Hawkins 2001: 35, 48, Ionin – Wexler 2002: 102-103).[16] Although no big

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[14] Possible alternative wording, such as *often quarrel* or *often argue*, accepted aside from *often fight*, is discussed in section 3.1.1.

[15] See Table 25 in section 2.1.2.2.

[16] Challenges to morpheme order studies are discussed by Gass and Selinker (2008: 132-135). Pawlak (2008: 188) explains that the third-person *–s* is so difficult to acquire

difference between the proficiency levels in the proportions of incorrect translations with *cast* (*brogan*) should then be expected, the IS made more errors (22.2%) in translations with this noun than the AS (18.8%).

The larger proportions of errors in using the indefinite article in the less advanced group might result from the fact that the indefinite article and its role in manifesting noun countability are acquired quite late (Parrish 1987: 379, Thomas 1989: 341, Master 1997: 218-220, Hawkins 2001: 239). In the study, the IS made more errors than the AS in translations with all three PL– reclassifiable nouns. The relative difference was the largest for *hardship (chinch)* – AS: 7.9%, IS: 14.6% and *veneer (turpeth)* – AS: 15.9%, IS: 18.4%, and the smallest for *resin (jactancy)* – AS: 24.4%, IS: 24.9%.[17]

3.1.3.4.2. 6PL– verbs

Table 76 and Figure 48 make it possible to compare the proportions of incorrect translations with PL– verbs produced by the AS and the IS. The few cases, shown in Table 70 and Table 73, where the subjects' answers were modeled on the syntax of English synonyms are not considered below.

Table 76. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs across proficiency levels

Test	P+				P–/E–			
	AS	**IS**	**Z test**	**S**	**AS**	**IS**	**Z test**	**S**
VCA	59.2	76.7	-2.408	0.02*	40.8	20.8	2.818	0.00*
VCM	57.6	72.0	-2.099	0.04*	40.9	26.1	2.191	0.03*
VC0	66.2	75.3	-1.417	0.16	30.9	21.6	1.496	0.13

because of its communicative redundancy and lack of salience. For one thing, the morpheme is nonessential to grasp the meaning of an utterance. For another, it is not perceptually salient as a vehicle for grammatical meaning.

[17] Admittedly, Ekiert (2004: 17) found that the indefinite article emerges quite early in the process of English article acquisition, but as the author herself admits, this conclusion stands in stark contrast to the results from most L2 article acquisition studies, including those referred to above.

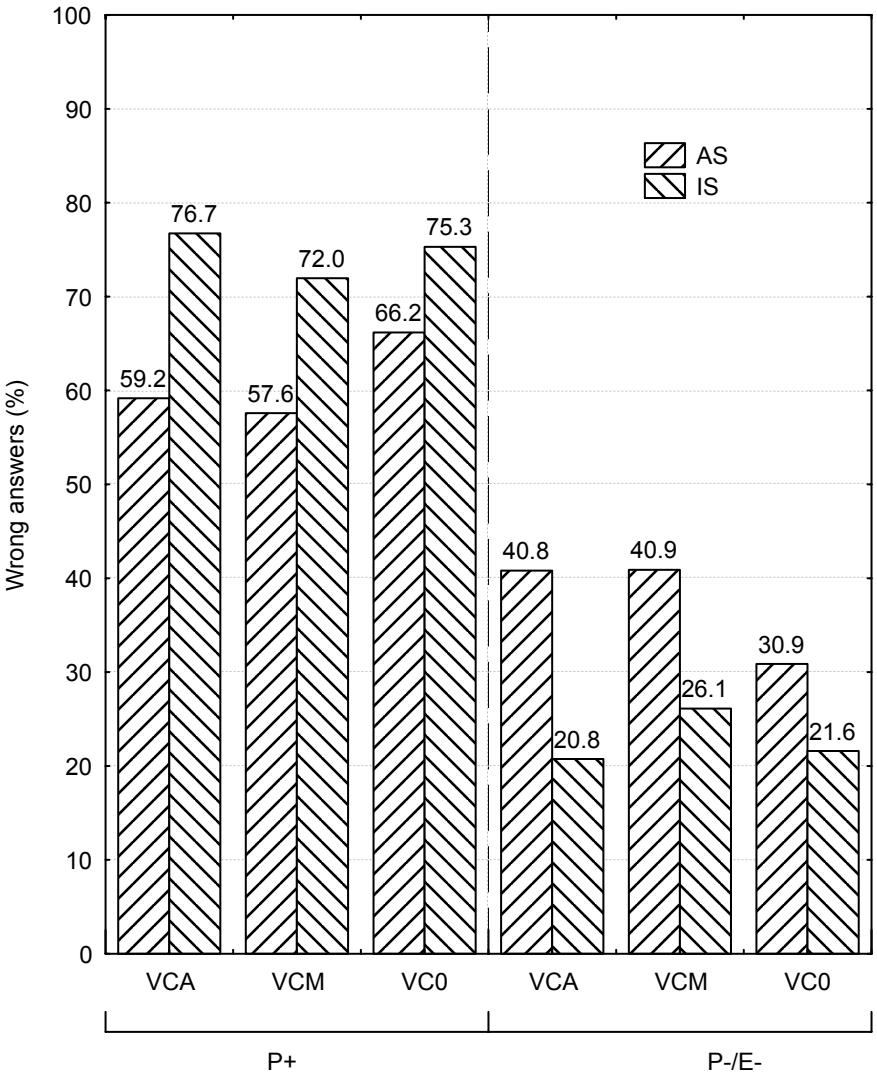

Figure 48. Incorrect translations with PL– verbs across proficiency levels

The results indicate that proficiency in English had a bearing on the subjects' recourse to their mother tongue as well as decisions which cannot be attributed to their knowledge of either Polish or English. While the higher proficiency level largely reduced negative transfer from Polish, it stimulated the provision of translations which had hardly anything to do with copying syntactic patterns of Polish equivalents or English syno-

nyms onto target verbs. On average, translations modeled on Polish were over 20 percent more frequent among the IS, while those which could not have been patterned after Polish or English were 65 percent more common in the advanced group. These regularities, present in all three verb tests, were statistically significant only when dictionary entries offered codes, either mainstream or alternative. The effect of proficiency level was the strongest in tests with alternative codes, where the IS made 30 percent more errors than the AS due to interference from Polish, and the AS produced about twice as many inexplicably incorrect translations as the IS. In verb tests with mainstream codes, the differences approximated 25 and 60 percent, respectively. In codeless microstructures, the effect of proficiency proved to be insufficiently strong to gain statistical significance.

It seems natural that the more proficient subjects did not rely on Polish syntax so heavily as the less advanced. Yet, it is noteworthy that in the presence of codes, the higher level of proficiency prevented negative transfer from Polish much more effectively. Further research is needed to see whether codes play a similar role in reducing L1 interference regardless of dictionary users' mother tongue. It also transpires that advanced learners more frequently look for solutions which cannot be put down to negative transfer from L1 or L2 intralinguistic analogies, and, unfortunately, codes cannot mitigate this effect.

The preceding sections offered an insight into the subjects' success (and failure) in the translation task. In the following ones, attention is paid to the choices they made in dictionary entries to provide correct answers.

3.2. Dictionary consultation and correct answers

3.2.1. Introduction

Section 3.2 is concerned primarily with the decisions taken by the subjects when consulting the supplied dictionaries which resulted in correct translations. The aim is to assess the user-friendliness of codes and, additionally, examples. Attention is paid to the frequency with which the vehicles for relevant syntactic information were selected in the entries, provided that their identification ended in correctly completed translations.

As pointed out in sections 2.1.2.4.3.1 and 2.1.2.4.3.2, not all sources of syntactic information were helpful in the translation task. In a noun entry, there was one code, which conveyed information either on noun reclassification or the variable concord of collective nouns with verbs. In a verb entry, there were three codes, only one of which was the locus of relevant information. The key syntactic properties of the headwords were also exemplified. In a noun entry, one out of the two examples supplied conveyed the information useful in translation, while in a verb entry – one out of three (section 2.1.2.4.4). Besides, there were tests with codeless entries, in which the subjects could draw the necessary syntactic information only from examples.[18] In short, then, in the supplied microstructures, the subjects could choose between the sources of syntactic information (i.e., codes, except for codeless tests, and examples) which were relevant to the task in hand and not.

The understanding of user-friendliness in this book, explained in sections 1.1 and 1.5, requires that the bulk of the forthcoming discussion be devoted to the analysis of the frequency of reference to the sources of syntactic information which were rightly recognized as helpful in translation, and reference to which bore fruit in the form of correct answers. Thus, correct translations based on successful dictionary consultation, designated by CAD in the preceding sections, are of utmost interest. Nonetheless, before investigating which information from the supplied entries helped most in the translation task, the correct translations which do not follow from successful dictionary use are briefly commented on.

3.2.2. Correct answers without dictionary support

3.2.2.1. Advanced students

The data necessary to analyze the AS' correct translations which are not based on successful dictionary use are given in Table 77 and Figure 49. The translations in question fall into two categories: those which are not grounded on dictionary consultation at all, as evidenced by the lack of any underlining in entries (*CAnD – correct answers, no dictionary use*),

[18] Section 2.1.2.4.2 explains why definitions were not vehicles for syntactic information useful in the experiment.

and those in the case of which irrelevant dictionary information was marked as useful (*CAwD – correct answers, wrong dictionary use*). With respect to the latter, a distinction can be drawn between answers derived from misidentified examples, possible in all tests (*CAwE – correct answers, wrong examples*), and codes – in VCA and VCM (*CAwC – correct answers, wrong codes*). Yet, there were subjects who underlined a few sources at a time, only some of which were irrelevant. As mentioned in section 3.1.2.1, marking at least one relevant source of syntactic information, either alone or in combination with other sources, relevant or not, was treated as successful dictionary consultation. By the same token, dictionary consultation was considered unsuccessful when no source of syntactic information relevant to the translation task was underlined. It is only the instances of unsuccessful dictionary consultation which, oddly enough, led to correct translations that are analyzed below. In what follows, irrelevant sources of syntactic information are considered in isolation, that is irrespective of whether they were underlined alone or together with some other irrelevant source.[19]

[19] Consequently, in the table, the data on *CAwE* and *CAwC* do not add up to *CAwD* for VCA and VCM. Nonetheless, irrelevant codes and examples were rarely selected together (AS: VCA – 7 cases, VCM – 3; IS: VCA – 2, VCM – 2). However, the sum of *CAnD* and *CAwD* does equal *CAnwD* (*correct answers, no or wrong dictionary use*). It is also worth noting that the bars in the figures in this section and the next one correspond to those which in the figures in sections 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2 represented correct answers not based on successful dictionary use. The fact that only one relevant source of syntactic information underlined in the microstructure was sufficient to treat dictionary consultation as successful irrespective of the other sources, relevant or not, with which it was chosen was motivated by the possibility of marking some entry components by accident. More importantly, in section 3.2.3, successful dictionary consultation is considered in relation to correct translations, which suggests that it is the relevant information extracted from the microstructures that was ultimately decisive in such cases, regardless of any other (irrelevant) entry components additionally underlined.

Table 77. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The AS

Items	Tests	Absolute terms						Percentage terms				
		CA	**CA nwD**	**CA nD**	**CA wD**	**CA wE**	**CA wC**	**CA nwD**	**CA nD**	**CA wD**	**CA wE**	**CA wC**
								CA=100%	CAnwD=100%			
12	NCA	751	201	24	177	177	0	26.8	11.9	88.1	88.1	0.0
	NCM	800	148	20	128	128	0	18.5	13.5	86.5	86.5	0.0
	NC0	751	188	23	165	165	0	25.0	12.2	87.8	87.8	0.0
	VCA	950	42	5	37	33	11	4.4	11.9	88.1	78.6	26.2
	VCM	908	38	9	29	26	6	4.2	23.7	76.3	68.4	15.8
	VC0	932	32	4	28	28	0	3.4	12.5	87.5	87.5	0.0
6PL–	NCA	321	62	9	53	53	0	19.3	14.5	85.5	85.5	0.0
	NCM	355	52	7	45	45	0	14.6	13.5	86.5	86.5	0.0
	NC0	345	56	9	47	47	0	16.2	16.1	83.9	83.9	0.0
	VCA	456	14	1	13	13	2	3.1	7.1	92.9	92.9	14.3
	VCM	433	11	3	8	7	1	2.5	27.3	72.7	63.6	9.1
	VC0	448	13	3	10	10	0	2.9	23.1	76.9	76.9	0.0
6PL+	NCA	430	139	15	124	124	0	32.3	10.8	89.2	89.2	0.0
	NCM	445	96	13	83	83	0	21.6	13.5	86.5	86.5	0.0
	NC0	406	132	14	118	118	0	32.5	10.6	89.4	89.4	0.0
	VCA	494	28	4	24	20	9	5.7	14.3	85.7	71.4	32.1
	VCM	475	27	6	21	19	5	5.7	22.2	77.8	70.4	18.5
	VC0	484	19	1	18	18	0	3.9	5.3	94.7	94.7	0.0

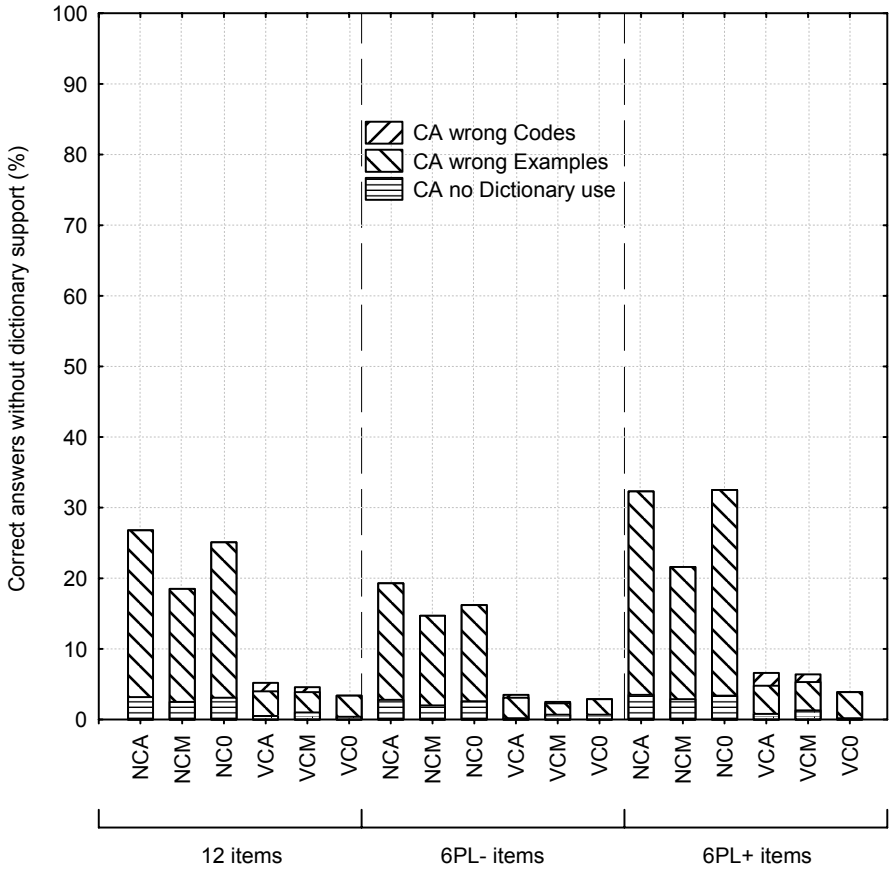

Figure 49. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The AS

As implied in section 3.1.2.1, the AS supplied correct translations without due dictionary support much more often in noun tests than in verb tests. In the former, such translations constituted from one fifth (NCM) to one fourth of all correct answers (NCA, NC0), while in the latter – not even five percent. It is also clear that they occurred more often with PL+ than PL– nouns and verbs.

In all the tests, correct translations not backed up by successful dictionary use were in the vast majority of cases accompanied by the choice of irrelevant examples. On average, their selection was more frequent in noun tests (87 percent of the answers in question) than in verb tests (78 percent). In VCA and VCM they were also marked, respectively, three

times and over four times more often than irrelevant codes. Interestingly, alternative verb codes were more liable to misidentification than mainstream ones, and typically when the subjects were dealing with PL+ verbs. Correct translations without any underlining in the supplied entries usually constituted around 10 percent of all the right answers not based on successful dictionary use, and only in VCM – over one fourth.

3.2.2.2. Intermediate students

To discuss the correct translations in which the IS either misidentified the syntactic information in the supplied dictionaries or failed to reveal their choices, the pertinent data are summarized in Table 78 and Figure 50.

Table 78. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The IS

Items	Tests	Absolute terms						Percentage terms				
		CA	CA nwD	CA nD	CA wD	CA wE	CA wC	CA nwD	CA nD	CA wD	CA wE	CA wC
								CA=100%	CAnwD=100%			
12	NCA	468	264	28	236	236	0	56.4	10.6	89.4	89.4	0.0
	NCM	425	270	70	200	200	0	63.5	25.9	74.1	74.1	0.0
	NC0	426	261	24	237	237	0	61.3	9.2	90.8	90.8	0.0
	VCA	423	61	9	52	49	5	14.4	14.8	85.2	80.3	8.2
	VCM	389	74	24	50	47	5	19.0	32.4	67.6	63.5	6.8
	VC0	403	91	8	83	83	0	22.6	8.8	91.2	91.2	0.0
6PL–	NCA	136	60	6	54	54	0	44.1	10.0	90.0	90.0	0.0
	NCM	115	55	16	39	39	0	47.8	29.1	70.9	70.9	0.0
	NC0	129	60	6	54	54	0	46.5	10.0	90.0	90.0	0.0
	VCA	160	12	1	11	11	1	7.5	8.3	91.7	91.7	8.3
	VCM	149	21	7	14	14	1	14.1	33.3	66.7	66.7	4.8
	VC0	150	29	2	27	27	0	19.3	6.9	93.1	93.1	0.0
6PL+	NCA	332	204	22	182	182	0	61.4	10.8	89.2	89.2	0.0
	NCM	310	215	54	161	161	0	69.4	25.1	74.9	74.9	0.0
	NC0	297	201	18	183	183	0	67.7	9.0	91.0	91.0	0.0
	VCA	263	49	8	41	38	4	18.6	16.3	83.7	77.6	8.2
	VCM	240	53	17	36	33	4	22.1	32.1	67.9	62.3	7.5
	VC0	253	62	6	56	56	0	24.5	9.7	90.3	90.3	0.0

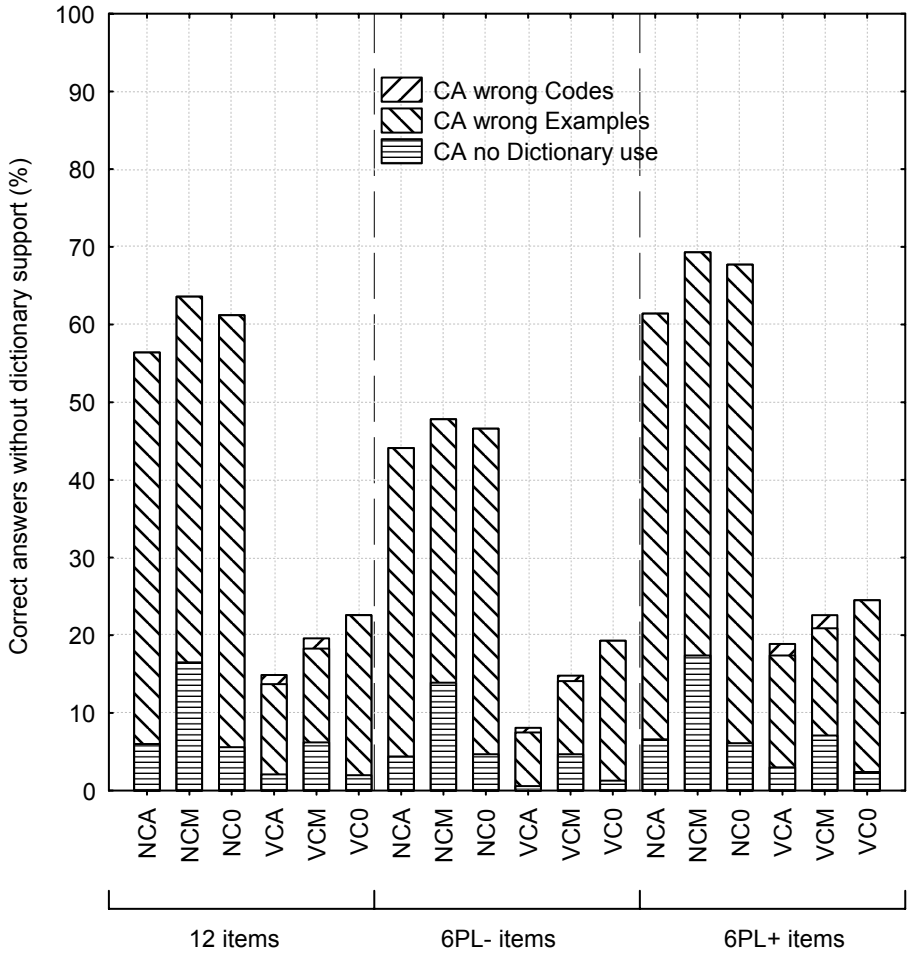

Figure 50. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use: The IS

In noun tests, the IS succeeded in the translation task without making the expected use of the supplied dictionaries more often than in verb tests; around three fifths of their correct translations with nouns and only about one fifth of those with verbs were produced without dictionary assistance. Obviously, then, for each part of speech, the proportions largely exceeded those computed for the more proficient group, analyzed above. However, like at the advanced level, most correct translations without due dictionary consultation were given with PL+ nouns and verbs.

In the majority of the translations under discussion, the IS selected wrong examples. In NCA, NC0 and VC0, examples were misidentified in almost 90 percent of all cases, whereas in VCM – in over three fifths. On average, 85 percent of correct answers provided without the expected dictionary support in noun tests and 78 percent in verb tests were accompanied by irrelevant examples. Codes were misidentified much more rarely. In VCA and VCM, useless alternative and mainstream codes were underlined with less than one tenth of all the answers under discussion. Finally, the absence of any traces of dictionary use was most conspicuous in NCM and VCM, where over one fourth and about one third of all correct translations under consideration, respectively, were not accompanied by any underlining in the supplied entries. In the other tests, the proportion approximated 10 percent.

3.2.2.3. Advanced and intermediate levels compared

Table 79 and Figure 51 juxtapose the percentages of misidentified examples and codes in the supplied microstructures at both proficiency levels. Only the data concerning all test items are taken into account in view of too few observations for PL+ or PL– verbs in the advanced group and PL– verbs in the intermediate one (CAnwD<30), which precludes running the Z test.

Table 79. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use across proficiency levels

Test	CA wrong Examples				CA wrong Codes			
	AS(%)	IS(%)	Z test	p	AS(%)	IS(%)	Z test	p
NCA	88.1	89.4	-0.452	0.65				
NCM	86.5	74.1	2.953	0.00*				
NC0	87.8	90.8	-1.038	0.30				
VCA	78.6	80.3	-0.217	0.83	26.2	8.2	2.477	0.01*
VCM	68.4	63.5	0.516	0.61	15.8	6.8	1.521	0.13
VC0	87.5	91.2	-0.608	0.54				

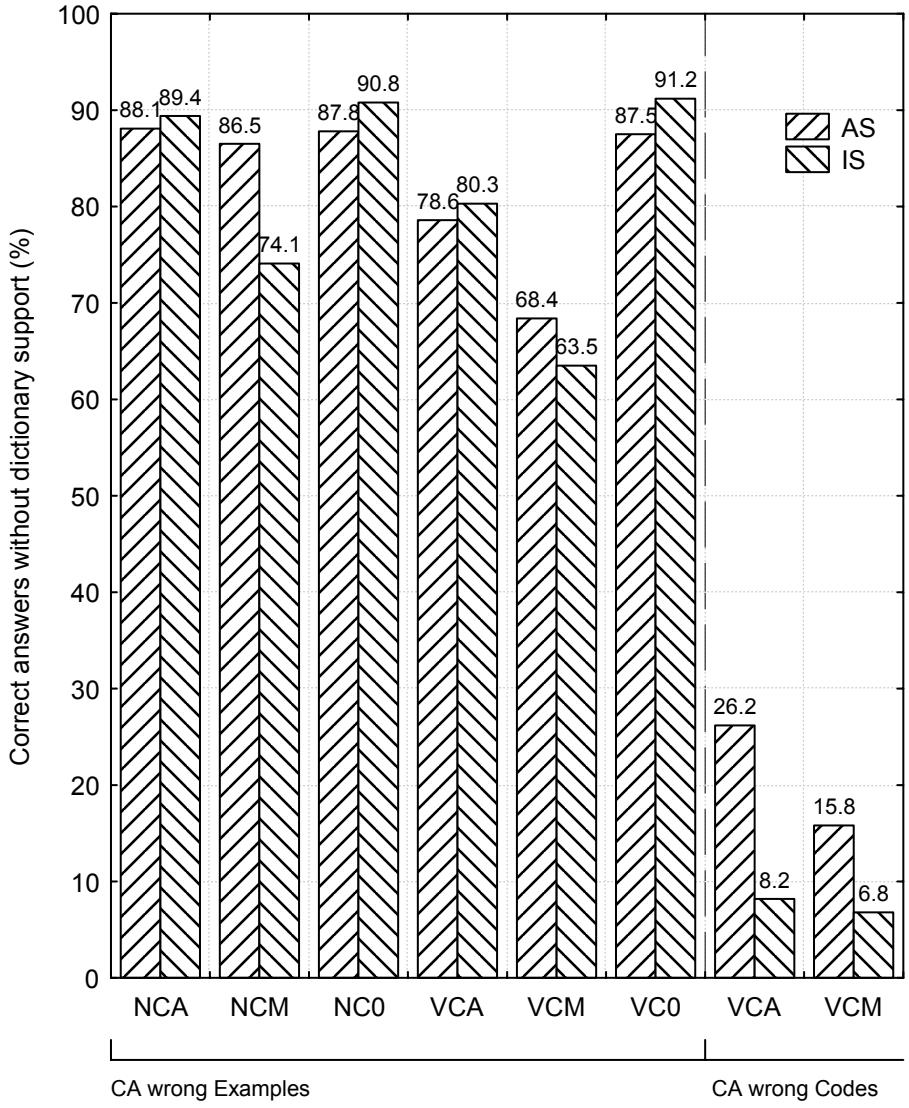

Figure 51. Correct translations not supported by successful dictionary use across proficiency levels

As regards examples, the data indicate that in NCM, the AS marked irrelevant examples in dictionary entries about 17 percent more often than the IS, and the difference was statistically significant. In the other tests, the divergences between the groups with respect to the proportions of

misidentified examples were much smaller and lacked statistical significance. In verb tests, mainstream and alternative codes which could not help in the translation task were underlined more often by the AS. However, only in the case of alternative codes, selected by the AS over three times as often again as by the IS, was the difference statistically significant. In general, then, it turns out that the AS were more prone than the IS to choose wrong alternative codes and sometimes – also examples. Surprisingly enough, their better knowledge of English did not facilitate discriminating between relevant and irrelevant sources of syntactic information in the microstructure.

In conclusion, the above analysis shows that correct translations not grounded on successful dictionary consultation prevailed at the intermediate level and were much less frequent at the advanced one. It also transpires that noun entries were more often wasted on the subjects than verb entries. Inadequate reliance on dictionaries was most common in the case of PL+ nouns and verbs, the syntax of which was congruent with Polish. This suggests that the correct translations with PL+ items which were not supported by sifting out irrelevant syntactic information in entries probably resulted from mapping Polish syntax onto English. Besides, it turns out that in all tests, the students most often misidentified examples and indicated useless ones as helpful. Such erroneous choices of verbal illustrations were more common in noun tests. This regularity is surprising in view of the fact that, as pointed out above, noun entries featured two examples, while verb entries three, but only one example in an entry conveyed the information necessary to correctly complete the partial translations. This implies that the chances of making a wrong choice were higher in verb tests. Against all the odds, fishing out helpful syntactic information on nouns proved more difficult. It is noteworthy that irrelevant codes were confused with relevant ones less frequently than examples. Coded information is then less likely to be misidentified and taken for useful when it does not furnish the needed information. Surprisingly enough, better knowledge of English did not entail better discrimination between useful and useless information in the microstructure. In fact, it even increased the frequency of example and code misidentification in some cases. Finally, the subjects' failure to reveal any choices made in the microstructures proved relatively infrequent.

All the cases considered above are eliminated from further analysis. Attention is paid below only to the correct translations which were accompanied by relevant sources of syntactic information marked by the subjects in the supplied entries.

3.2.3. Correct answers with dictionary support

3.2.3.1. Concurrent selection of sources of syntactic information

3.2.3.1.1. Advanced students

The following discussion is based on an analysis of the frequency of reference to the relevant examples and codes which were identified in the entries and yielded correct translations in the test. By way of introduction, attention is paid to the combinations in which the sources were underlined. Any irrelevant syntactic information selected together with the helpful examples and codes is not taken into consideration below.[20]

The tests with codeless microstructures (NC0 and VC0) are excluded from investigation. For one thing, the absence of codes naturally directed the users' attention to examples, the only source of relevant grammatical information in codeless entries. For another, they were included in the design only to create control conditions necessary to verify the hypothesis about the influence of the mere presence of codes on language production, which was already considered in section 3.1.2.

In the four mini-dictionaries analyzed below (NCA, NCM, VCA and VCM), there were three combinations in which the helpful sources of syntactic information could be underlined in an entry: the relevant code alone (*C*), the relevant example alone (*E*) and both (*CE*). The data in Table 80 and Figure 52 give an insight into the AS' choices which resulted in successful translations. In the table, like in the previous sections, *CAD* represents the number of *correct answers* following from successful *dictionary* consultation.

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[20] Compare the interpretation of successful dictionary consultation offered in sections 3.1.2.1 and 3.2.2.1.

Table 80. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The AS (concurrent selection of sources)

Items	Test	Absolute terms				%			
		C	E	CE	CAD	C	E	CE	CAD
12	NCA	131	307	112	550	23.8	55.8	20.4	100.0
	NCM	161	284	207	652	24.7	43.6	31.7	100.0
	VCA	175	335	398	908	19.3	36.9	43.8	100.0
	VCM	67	541	262	870	7.7	62.2	30.1	100.0
6PL–	NCA	49	153	57	259	18.9	59.1	22.0	100.0
	NCM	64	142	97	303	21.1	46.9	32.0	100.0
	VCA	89	163	190	442	20.1	36.9	43.0	100.0
	VCM	28	262	132	422	6.6	62.1	31.3	100.0
6PL+	NCA	82	154	55	291	28.2	52.9	18.9	100.0
	NCM	97	142	110	349	27.8	40.7	31.5	100.0
	VCA	86	172	208	466	18.5	36.9	44.6	100.0
	VCM	39	279	130	448	8.7	62.3	29.0	100.0

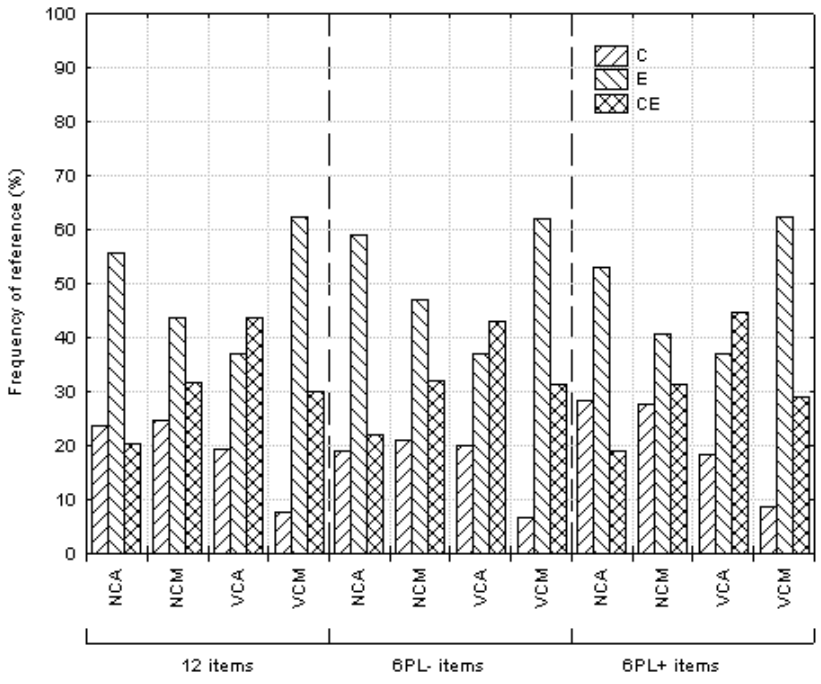

Figure 52. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The AS (concurrent selection of sources)

The data show that in three dictionaries (NCA, NCM, VCM) the subjects relied first of all on examples alone. The proportion of correct translations given on their basis ranged from over two fifths in NCM to over three fifths in VCM. This preference for examples cannot be observed only in verb entries with alternative codes (VCA), where the subjects most often, in over two fifths of all cases, opted for a combination of codes and examples. Examples were selected there alone about 20 percent less often.

In VCM and NCM, codes were usually underlined with examples. In these tests, about one third of correct answers supported by successful dictionary consultation were based on such combinations. In NCA, the proportion was lower and approximated one fifth. The subjects dealing with NCA underlined codes slightly more often without examples.[21] In the other tests, codes were chosen least often. In VCA and NCM they were marked in one fifth and one fourth of all the cases considered, respectively. However, in VCM not even one tenth of the correct answers under discussion were supported only by relevant coded syntactic information.

3.2.3.1.2. Intermediate students

Table 81 and Figure 53 present information on the choices made in the supplied entries by the IS.

Table 81. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The IS (concurrent selection of sources)

Items	Test	Absolute terms				%			
		C	E	CE	CAD	C	E	CE	CAD
12	NCA	43	134	27	204	21.1	65.7	13.2	100.0
	NCM	28	119	8	155	18.1	76.8	5.2	100.0
	VCA	23	211	128	362	6.4	58.3	35.4	100.0
	VCM	14	258	43	315	4.4	81.9	13.7	100.0
6PL–	NCA	19	45	12	76	25.0	59.2	15.8	100.0
	NCM	10	46	4	60	16.7	76.7	6.7	100.0
	VCA	4	89	55	148	2.7	60.1	37.2	100.0
	VCM	4	102	22	128	3.1	79.7	17.2	100.0
6PL+	NCA	24	89	15	128	18.8	69.5	11.7	100.0
	NCM	18	73	4	95	18.9	76.8	4.2	100.0
	VCA	10	156	21	187	5.3	83.4	11.2	100.0
	VCM	19	122	73	214	8.9	57.0	34.1	100.0

[21] In entries for PL+ nouns, they marked codes alone even half as often again as in combination with examples.

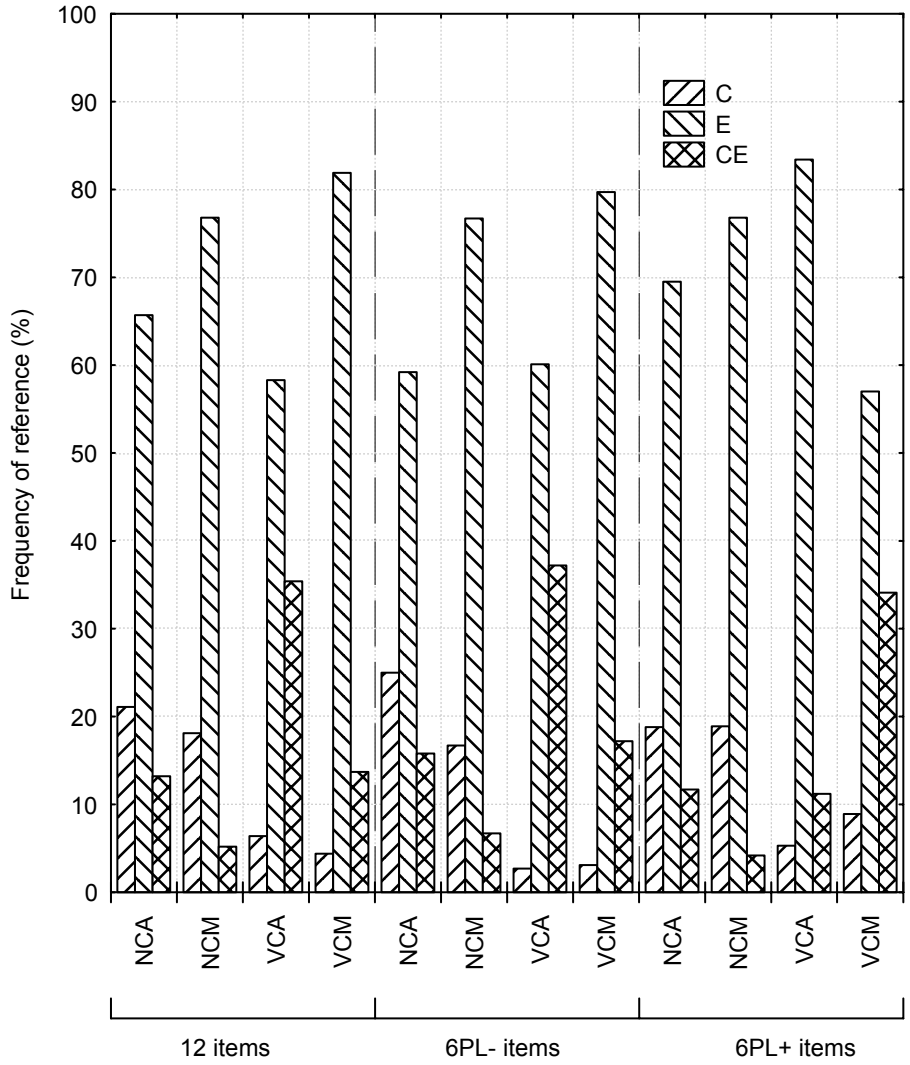

Figure 53. Correct translations supported by successful dictionary use: The IS (concurrent selection of sources)

The data indicate the subjects' definite preference for examples alone in all the dictionaries. In NCA and VCA, about three fifths of the analyzed answers were based only on examples, and in NCM and VCM – about four fifths. Besides, the IS favored codes over the combination of codes and examples in noun tests, but not in verb tests, where the reverse was

true. More specifically, in NCA, codes were underlined alone half as often again as in conjunction with examples. In NCM their usage over three times exceeded that of both sources. By contrast, in VCM and VCA codes were selected, respectively, three and five times more often with examples than alone. It should also be noted that the combination of alternative codes and examples was usually marked as helpful in entries for PL– verbs, while that of mainstream codes and examples – in entries for PL+ verbs.

This brief overview shows that, as a rule, the subjects supplied correct translations relying on one source of relevant syntactic information at a time – typically examples. Besides, the level of proficiency seems to have affected their choices. Yet, it would be very difficult to draw any other obvious conclusions on the basis of this preliminary analysis. The selection of two sources at a time blurs the picture and makes it difficult to determine the user-friendliness of examples and codes. It also hinders the identification of the role of independent variables and their interactions. To be able to reach firm conclusions, concurrent selection of sources is neglected in the next section.

3.2.3.2. Independent selection of sources of syntactic information

3.2.3.2.1. Preliminaries

3.2.3.2.1.1. Advanced students

In the analysis below, codes and examples are looked at in isolation. Thus, it is still the relevant, underlined examples and codes which yielded correct translations that are considered, but each source is analyzed separately, irrespective of whether it was selected in an entry alone or together with the other source.[22] Table 82 and Figure 54 present the relevant data on the AS' reference to the two sources of syntactic information seen in isolation from each other.

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[22] In crude terms, the instances where examples and codes were chosen jointly are added to those where only examples and only codes were marked as helpful. As a result, in each test, the sum of *C* and *E* exceeds *CAD*.

Table 82. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the AS

Items	Test	C	E	CAD	C			E		
					Lower	%	Upper	Lower	%	Upper
12	NCA	243	419	550	39.7	44.2	48.8	71.2	76.2	80.8
	NCM	368	491	652	52.2	56.4	60.6	71.0	75.3	79.3
	VCA	573	733	908	59.8	63.1	66.3	77.8	80.7	83.4
	VCM	329	803	870	34.6	37.8	41.1	89.9	92.3	94.3
6PL–	NCA	106	210	259	33.2	40.9	48.9	72.8	81.1	88.5
	NCM	161	239	303	47.0	53.1	59.5	72.8	78.9	84.2
	VCA	279	353	442	58.4	63.1	67.6	75.7	79.9	83.6
	VCM	160	394	422	33.4	37.9	42.7	90.2	93.4	95.8
6PL+	NCA	137	209	291	40.7	47.1	53.6	64.6	71.8	78.5
	NCM	207	252	349	53.0	59.3	65.1	66.1	72.2	77.8
	VCA	294	380	466	58.4	63.1	67.6	77.4	81.5	85.2
	VCM	169	409	448	33.3	37.7	42.4	87.6	91.3	94.2

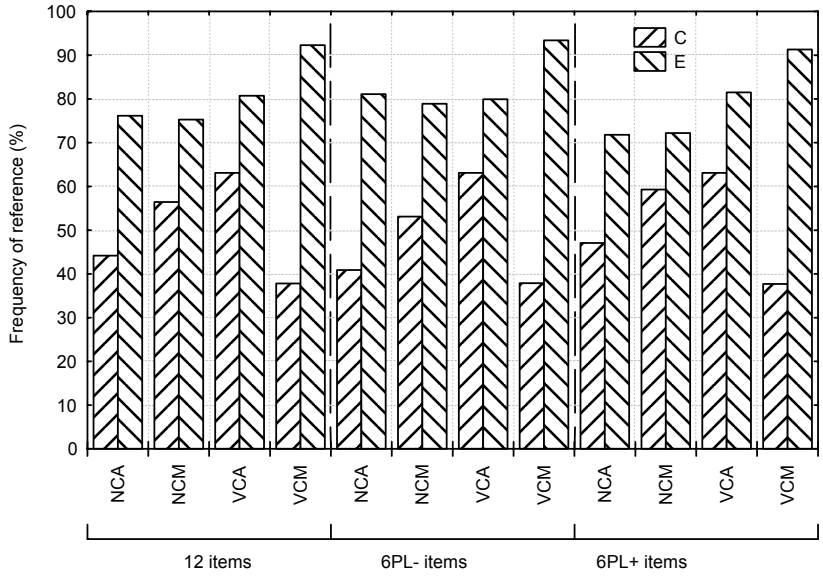

Figure 54. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the AS

The data show that the AS preferred examples to codes. From around 75 percent of correct answers in NCA and NCM to over 90 percent in VCM

were grounded on examples, while on codes – from two fifths in VCM to over three fifths in VCA. The difference in the frequency of reference to the two sources of syntactic information was always statistically significant, as indicated by the mutually exclusive confidence intervals computed around the percentages for codes and examples in each dictionary.

The data also imply that in verb entries, mainstream codes, selected around 40 percent less often than alternative ones, were quite conducive to choosing examples. In noun entries, by contrast, alternative codes were used over 20 percent less often than mainstream ones, but the form of codes does not seem to have affected reference to verbal illustrations so much as in verb entries. As already mentioned, both in NCA and NCM about three fourths of the subjects relied on examples in giving correct translations.

It also appears that in each test, the AS' choices of syntactic information on PL+ and PL– lexical items were largely similar and resembled those when all 12 items are taken into consideration. In other words, the above preliminary observations seem to hold true irrespective of the degree of syntactic congruence between English target items and their Polish equivalents.

3.2.3.2.1.2. Intermediate students

Table 83 and Figure 55 show data on the IS' reference to examples and codes seen in isolation from each other.

Table 83. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the IS

Items	Test	C	E	CAD	C			E		
					Lower	%	Upper	Lower	%	Upper
12	NCA	70	161	204	27.3	34.3	41.9	68.7	78.9	88.1
	NCM	36	127	155	16.7	23.2	31.1	69.5	81.9	92.9
	VCA	151	339	362	36.5	41.7	47.1	88.8	93.6	97.6
	VCM	57	301	315	14.1	18.1	22.8	89.9	95.6	100.1
6PL–	NCA	31	57	76	29.9	40.8	52.6	55.0	75.0	92.6
	NCM	14	50	60	13.8	23.3	36.1	64.7	83.3	97.9
	VCA	59	144	148	32.1	39.9	48.1	91.0	97.3	101.2
	VCM	26	124	128	14.1	20.3	28.2	88.6	96.9	102.4
6PL+	NCA	39	104	128	22.2	30.5	39.9	67.7	81.3	93.0
	NCM	22	77	95	15.0	23.2	33.4	64.6	81.1	95.1
	VCA	92	195	214	36.1	43.0	50.1	83.9	91.1	96.8
	VCM	31	177	187	11.8	16.6	22.7	86.7	94.7	100.8

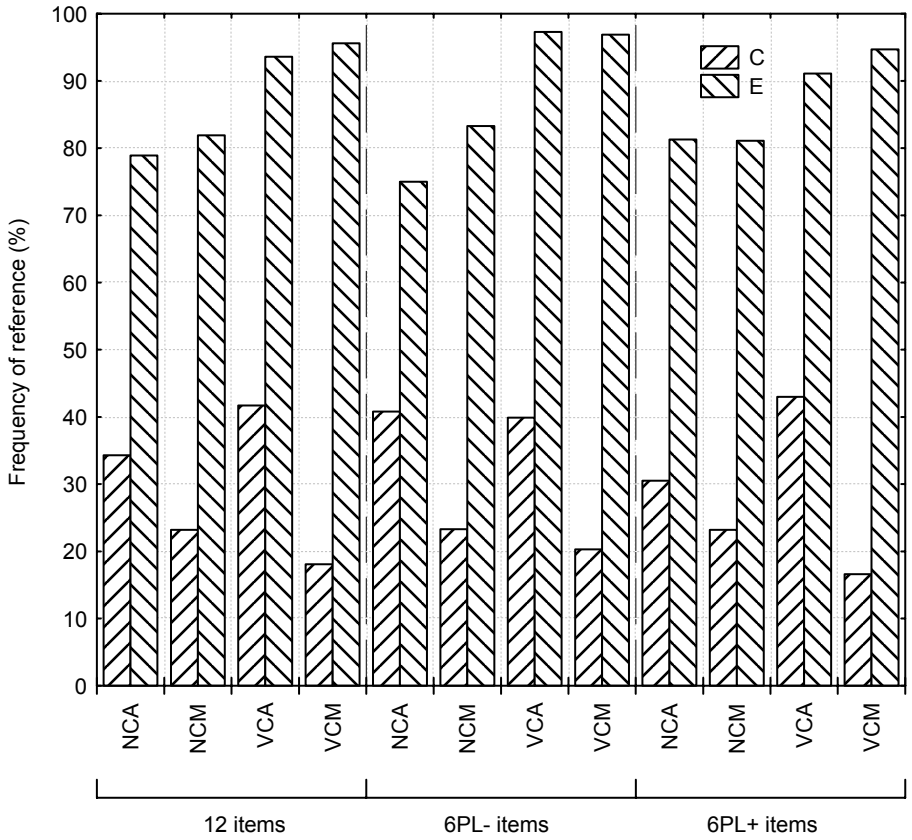

Figure 55. Correct translations and reference to relevant codes and examples by the IS

The table and the figure show that the IS, like the AS, tended to consult examples rather than codes. Around 80 percent of correct answers based on successful dictionary use in noun tests and 95 percent of those in verb tests rested on reference to relevant examples. By contrast, at most two fifths of correct translations in a test were produced after reference to relevant codes, as was the case in VCA. However, in VCM, the proportion did not reach one fifth. The mutually exclusive confidence intervals for the two sources in each dictionary prove that the difference was always statistically significant.

The data reveal as well that, dealing with each part of speech, the IS preferred alternative codes to mainstream ones, which stands in contrast

to the choices made by the AS in noun entries, where they relied on mainstream codes more frequently than on alternative ones. Besides, the IS selected examples more often when handling translations with verbs than nouns. Finally, it appears that syntactic congruence between Polish and English lexical items did not have a serious effect on the IS' recourse to either codes or examples in any dictionary; the pictures which emerge for PL+ and PL– are very much alike.

In conclusion, it is clear that in all tests, the AS and the IS supplied correct translations more often on the basis of examples than codes. In other words, regardless of the subjects' proficiency in English, correct language production resulted more frequently from reference to verbal illustrations than coded information. Thus, as predicted in hypothesis two (section 1.5), examples proved to be a more user-friendly source of syntactic information than codes.

The other preliminary observations made above follow only from a brief overview of the data. The next section offers a deeper insight into the outlined relations.

3.2.3.2.2. ANOVAs

3.2.3.2.2.1. Preliminaries

To further investigate the subjects' reference to codes and examples, repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted with three between-group variables: level of proficiency (LEVEL: AS / IS), part of speech (POS: V / N), form of codes (CODES: A / M), and one within-group (or within-subject) variable – congruence (CONGR.: PL+ / PL-). The results of the ANOVAs are presented first for codes and then for examples. For each source of syntactic information, the design is a 2x2x2-level between-group x2-level within-subject repeated measures ANOVA.

To conduct the analyses, data on the number of cases where relevant codes and examples were underlined and properly used by the subjects in each group were first totaled and then converted into percentages for each of the 12 entries in a test.[23] For example, 62 advanced students correctly completed the first translation (of the 12 given) in the noun test with entries featuring mainstream codes (NCM), and, importantly, their transla-

[23] Naturally, the two sources were analyzed in isolation from each other.

tions were based on successful dictionary consultation. In other words, they had properly identified the necessary information on noun syntax in the supplied entry, as evidenced by underlining, and provided the correct translation. Yet, only 40 of the 62 subjects relied in the task on the relevant coded information. This means that in the noun entry in question, the degree of user-friendliness of mainstream codes for the AS approximated 65 percent. Similar computations were performed for each lexical item in a test completed by the advanced and intermediate subjects. The statistics then showed how the user-friendliness of codes in each test varied according to the 12 entries. Still, the lexical items selected for the study are seen as replications and not as an independent variable. The percentages computed for codes in a test were thus further added up and averaged over entries separately for each level of syntactic congruence (PL+ / PL–). As a result, mean percentages were obtained reflecting the average frequency with which the AS and the IS consulted codes in the PL+ and PL– entries in a test and properly used the information in translation. Still, averaged only over relevant entries in each test, and not over the tests, the samples or the levels of syntactic congruence, the mean percentages pertain to the situation where all four factors are taken into account. Such mean percentages were computed in the same way for examples.[24]

The discussion for each source of syntactic information opens with a summary ANOVA table (Table 84 – codes, Table 89 – examples). Significant interactions of the highest order are analyzed first, and then the level of generalization increases so that significant main effects are considered last.

3.2.3.2.2.2. Codes

Table 84 offers an overview of the results yielded by the ANOVA for codes. In any ANOVA summary table below, *SS* represents sums of (deviation) squares, *MS* – mean squares, *df* – degrees of freedom, *F* – values of the F-test and *p* – the level of significance. The effects shown in the tables are judged statistically significant if $p<0.05$ (alpha=0.05). Such effects are marked with an asterisk (*) in the last column.

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[24] Table B.8 in the Appendix juxtaposes the proportions discussed in sections 3.2.3.2.1.1 and 3.2.3.2.1.2 (in italics) with the mean proportions taken into consideration in the ANOVAs.

Table 84. Reference to codes – a summary of ANOVA

FACTOR(S)	**SS**	**df**	**MS**	**F**	**p**
LEVEL	9033.5	1	9033.5	105.869	0.00*
POS	28.5	1	28.5	0.333	0.57
CODES	3414.4	1	3414.4	40.015	0.00*
LEVEL*POS	16.1	1	16.1	0.189	0.67
LEVEL*CODES	718.7	1	718.7	8.423	0.01*
POS*CODES	3819.7	1	3819.7	44.765	0.00*
LEVEL*POS*CODES	943.6	1	943.6	11.059	0.00*
CONGR.	1.1	1	1.1	0.016	0.90
CONGR.*LEVEL	222.6	1	222.6	3.216	0.08
CONGR.*POS	19.4	1	19.4	0.280	0.60
CONGR.*CODES	5.0	1	5.0	0.072	0.79
CONGR.*LEVEL*POS	127.5	1	127.5	1.842	0.18
CONGR.*LEVEL*CODES	10.8	1	10.8	0.156	0.70
CONGR.*POS*CODES	104.7	1	104.7	1.513	0.23
CONGR.*LEVEL*POS*CODES	119.7	1	119.7	1.729	0.20

The results of the repeated measures ANOVA reveal that one interaction between three factors, two interactions between two factors as well as two main effects were statistically significant. It is also noteworthy that none of the effects involving syntactic congruence proved to be statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis three (section 1.5), which predicted no important influence of syntactic congruence between Polish and English lexical items on the user-friendliness of codes has been confirmed.

The significant three-factor interaction LEVEL*POS*CODES is displayed graphically in Figure 56. Table 85 presents post-hoc *p*-levels for the Tukey HSD test.

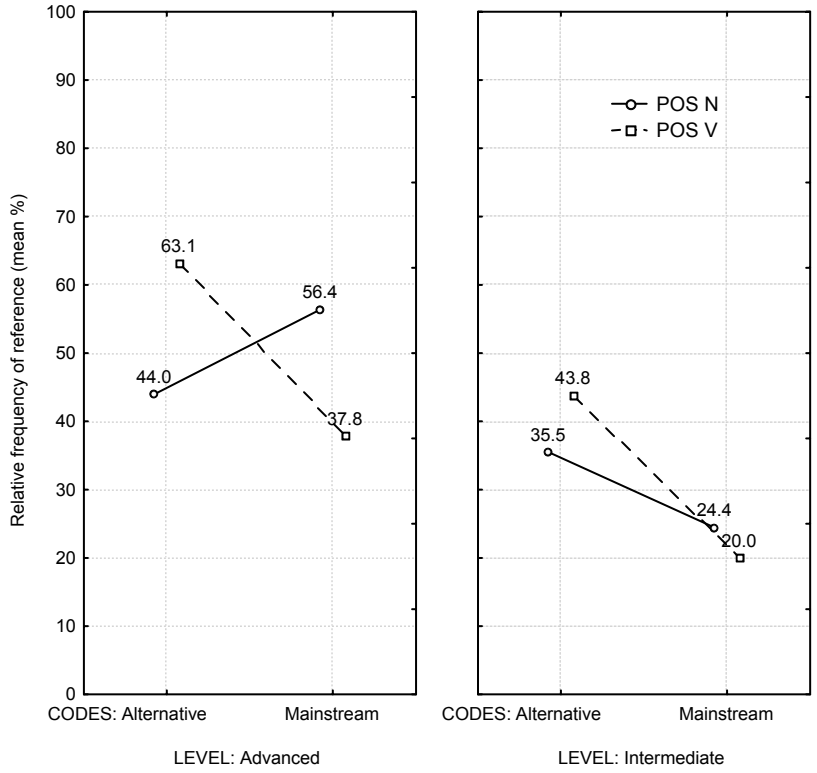

Figure 56. Interaction of LEVEL*POS*CODES

Table 85. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*POS*CODES

	LEVEL	**POS**	**CODES**	**{1} 44.0**	**{2} 56.4**	**{3} 63.1**	**{4} 37.8**	**{5} 35.5**	**{6} 24.4**	**{7} 43.8**	**{8} 20.0**
1	AS	N	A		0.04*	0.00*	0.72	0.35	0.00*	1.00	0.00*
2	AS	N	M	0.04*		0.63	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.03*	0.00*
3	AS	V	A	0.00*	0.63		0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*
4	AS	V	M	0.72	0.00*	0.00*		1.00	0.02*	0.76	0.00*
5	IS	N	A	0.35	0.00*	0.00*	1.00		0.09	0.38	0.00*
6	IS	N	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.02*	0.09		0.00*	0.93
7	IS	V	A	1.00	0.03*	0.00*	0.76	0.38	0.00*		0.00*
8	IS	V	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.93	0.00*	

When it comes to the role of the form of codes, it can be seen that in noun entries, the AS consulted mainstream codes (56.4%) significantly more often than alternative ones (44.0%). In fact, reference to mainstream noun codes was in this group about 30 percent more frequent than to alternative ones. In verb entries, by contrast, the advanced learners relied much more frequently on alternative codes (63.1%) than on mainstream ones (37.8%), and the difference, approaching 70 percent, was more significant than in the case of nouns. A strong preference for alternative verb codes (43.8%) was observed also in the less advanced group, where they were consulted over twice as often as mainstream verb codes (20.0%). Even though the subjects selected alternative codes (35.5%) nearly half as often again as mainstream ones (24.4%) in noun entries as well, according to the Tukey test, the difference was not significant.

The role of the part of speech was highly significant only in the more proficient group. The advanced students consulted alternative codes over 40 percent more often when dealing with verbs (63.1%) than nouns (44.0%). The reverse was true for mainstream codes, which were effectively used about half as often again in noun entries (56.4%) as in those for verbs (37.8%).

Finally, the higher level of proficiency in English stimulated significantly more frequent reference to codes in all conditions except for noun entries featuring alternative codes (44.0% for AS and 35.5% for IS). The difference of about 25 percent was there still in favor of the advanced students, but it did not prove large enough to reach significance on the Tukey test.

The data in Figure 57 and Table 86 make it possible to discuss the POS*CODES interaction.

Table 86. The Tukey HSD test for POS*CODES

	POS	**CODES**	**{1} 39.7**	**{2} 40.4**	**{3} 53.4**	**{4} 28.9**
1	N	A		0.99	0.00*	0.00*
2	N	M	0.99		0.00*	0.00*
3	V	A	0.00*	0.00*		0.00*
4	V	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	

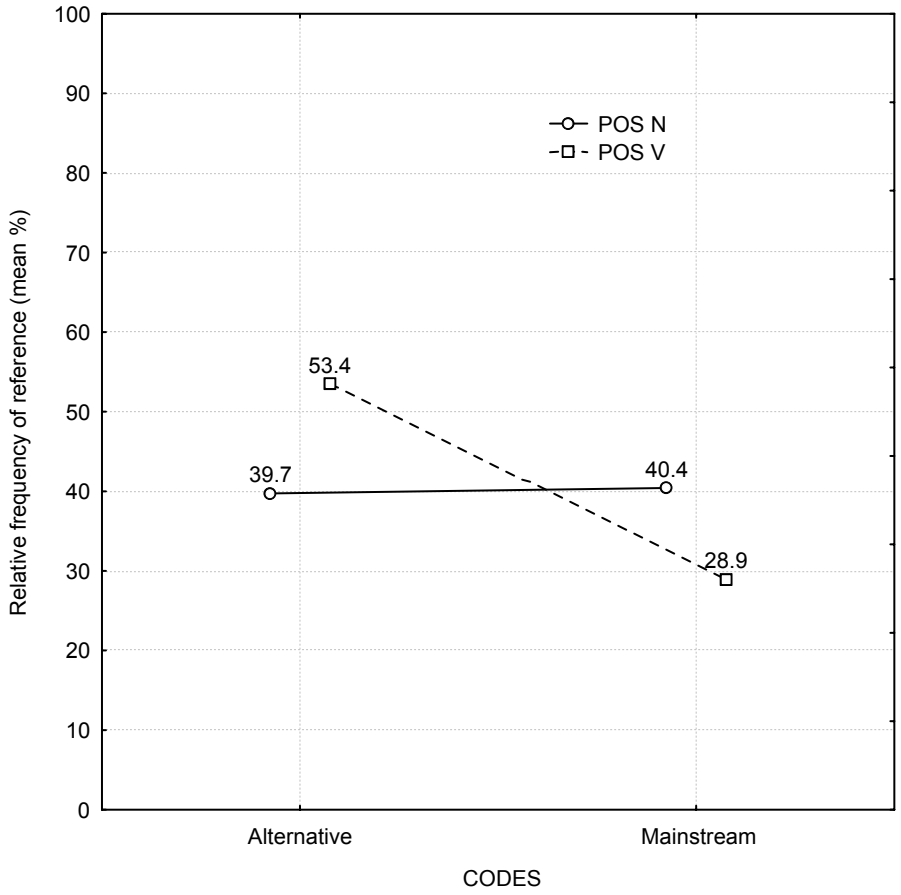

Figure 57. Interaction of POS*CODES

When the level of proficiency is disregarded, it turns out that in noun entries, reference to alternative (39.7%) and mainstream codes (40.4%) was comparably frequent. The other differences were statistically significant. In verb entries, alternative codes (53.4%) were consulted 85 percent more often than mainstream ones (28.9%). Besides, it transpires that alternative codes were used over 30 percent more frequently in the case of verbs (53.4%) than nouns (39.7%), but mainstream noun codes (40.4%) were referred to 40 percent more often than mainstream verb codes (28.9%).

Relevant details on the other significant two-factor interaction, LEVEL*CODES, are given in Figure 58 and Table 87.

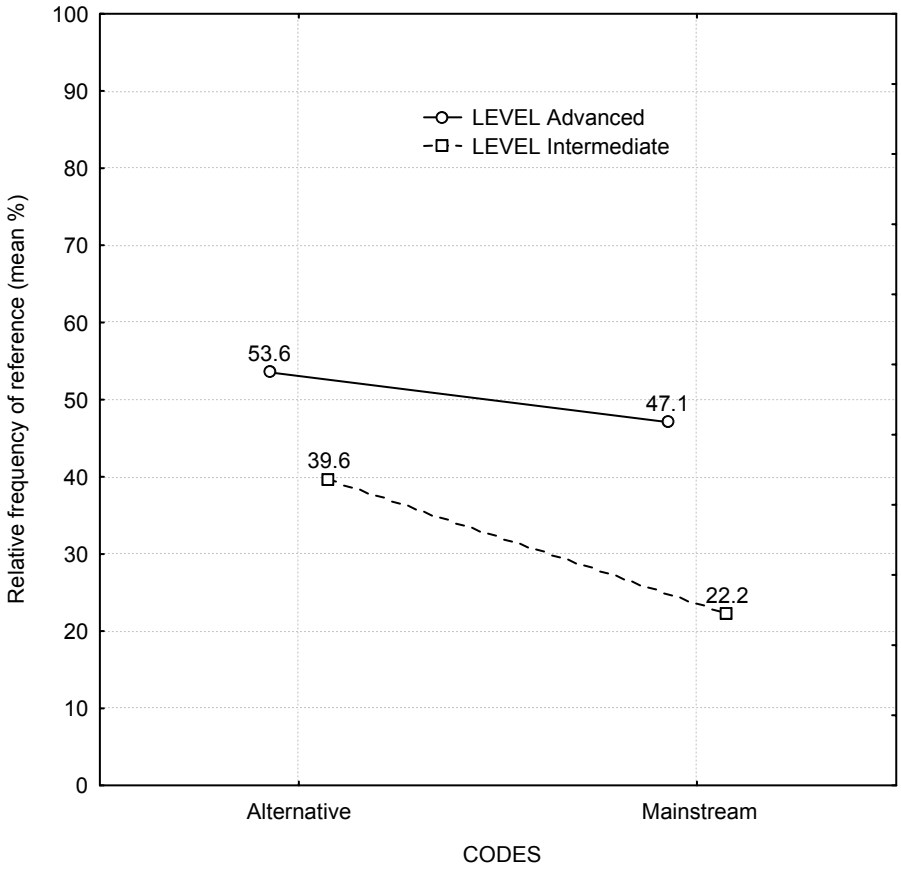

Figure 58. Interaction of LEVEL*CODES

Table 87. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*CODES

	LEVEL	**CODES**	**{1} 53.6**	**{2} 47.1**	**{3} 39.6**	**{4} 22.2**
1	AS	A		0.09	0.00*	0.00*
2	AS	M	0.09		0.04*	0.00*
3	IS	A	0.00*	0.04*		0.00*
4	IS	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	

When no attention is paid to the part of speech, it turns out that the AS consulted mainstream codes (47.1%) as often as alternative ones (53.6%). The IS, by contrast, showed a strong preference for alternative codes

(39.6%), which were underlined about 80 percent more often than mainstream ones (22.2%). However, the AS referred to encoded syntactic information of any kind much more often than the IS, but the difference between the two proficiency groups was larger for mainstream codes (112%) than alternative ones (35%).

Figure 59 and Table 88 present information on the significant main effects CODES and LEVEL.

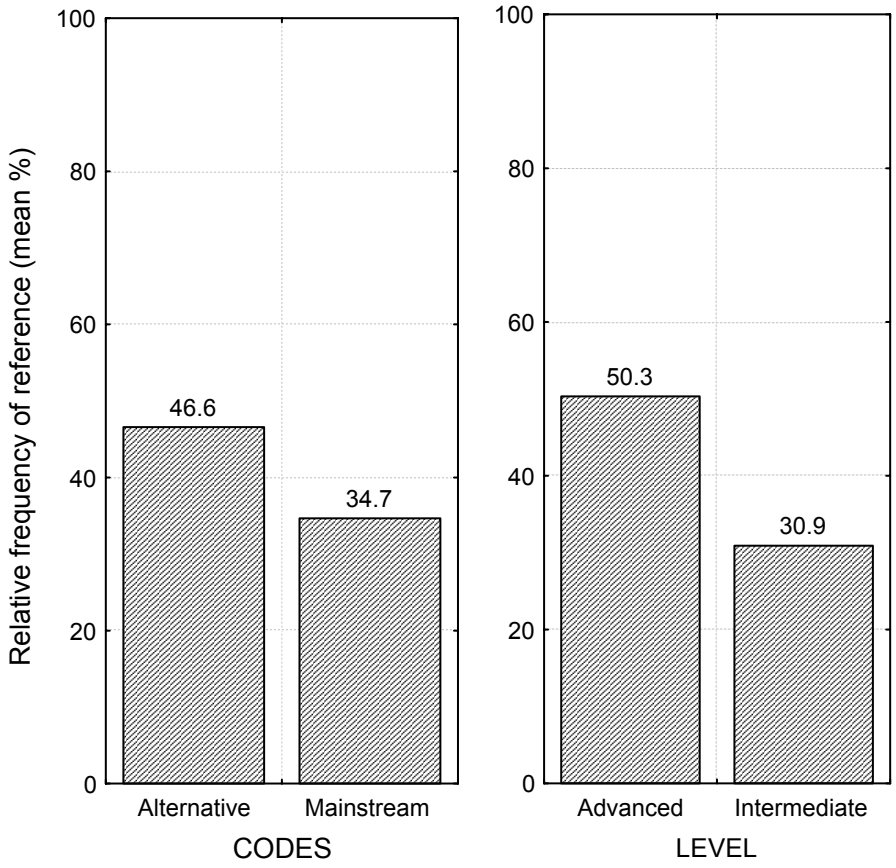

Figure 59. Main effects: CODES and LEVEL

Table 88. The Tukey HSD test for CODES and LEVEL

	CODES	**{1} 46.6**	**{2} 34.7**		**LEVEL**	**{1} 50.3**	**{2} 30.9**
1	A		0.00*	1	AS		0.00*
2	M	0.00*		2	IS	0.00*	

Overall, the subjects relied on alternative codes over 30 percent more often than on mainstream ones. Also, the more advanced they were, the more willingly they used encoded information; the difference between the two groups exceeds 60 percent in favor of the advanced learners.

Before the findings are summarized and the hypotheses not yet commented on are evaluated (section 3.2.4), a similar analysis conducted for the subjects' reference to examples is presented below. Although a thorough investigation into the user-friendliness of examples is not the primary aim of the book, the collected data give a unique opportunity to get a deeper insight into this aspect.

3.2.3.2.2.3. Examples

The results of the ANOVA for examples are summarized in Table 89.

Table 89. Reference to examples – a summary of ANOVA

FACTOR(S)	**SS**	**df**	**MS**	**F**	**p**
LEVEL	805.7	1	805.7	17.310	0.00*
POS	3980.5	1	3980.5	85.540	0.00*
CODES	299.3	1	299.3	6.430	0.02*
LEVEL*POS	160.8	1	160.8	3.460	0.07
LEVEL*CODES	68.1	1	68.1	1.460	0.23
POS*CODES	226.0	1	226.0	4.860	0.03*
LEVEL*POS*CODES	274.3	1	274.3	5.890	0.02*
CONGR.	199.7	1	199.7	3.470	0.07
CONGR.*LEVEL	67.9	1	67.9	1.180	0.28
CONGR.*POS	13.4	1	13.4	0.230	0.63
CONGR.*CODES	12.7	1	12.7	0.220	0.64
CONGR.*LEVEL*POS	293.2	1	293.2	5.090	0.03*

FACTOR(S)	SS	df	MS	F	p
CONGR.*LEVEL*CODES	4.2	1	4.2	0.070	0.79
CONGR.*POS*CODES	18.4	1	18.4	0.320	0.57
CONGR.*LEVEL*POS*CODES	148.6	1	148.6	2.580	0.12

The data indicate that two interactions between three factors, one interaction between two factors and three main effects were statistically significant. Unlike in the case of codes, one of the interactions involves congruence.

Figure 60 illustrates graphically the statistically significant three-factor interaction CONGR.*LEVEL*POS. Table 90 is a matrix of post-hoc *p*-levels for the Tukey HSD test.

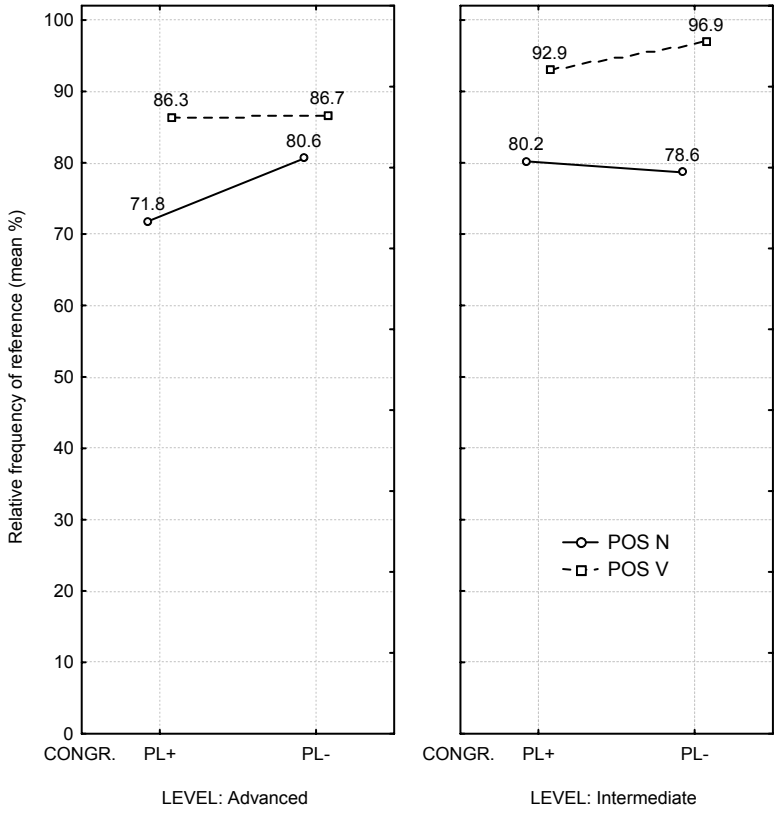

Figure 60. Interaction of CONGR.*LEVEL*POS (examples)

Table 90. The Tukey HSD test for CONGR.*LEVEL*POS (examples)

	LEVEL	POS	CONGR.	{1} 71.8	{2} 80.6	{3} 86.3	{4} 86.7	{5} 80.2	{6} 78.6	{7} 92.9	{8} 96.9
1	AS	N	PL+		0.11	0.00*	0.00*	0.08	0.30	0.00*	0.00*
2	AS	N	PL–	0.11		0.53	0.39	1.00	1.00	0.00*	0.00*
3	AS	V	PL+	0.00*	0.53		1.00	0.37	0.17	0.29	0.01*
4	AS	V	PL–	0.00*	0.39	1.00		0.36	0.10	0.41	0.02*
5	IS	N	PL+	0.08	1.00	0.37	0.36		1.00	0.00*	0.00*
6	IS	N	PL–	0.30	1.00	0.17	0.10	1.00		0.00*	0.00*
7	IS	V	PL+	0.00*	0.00*	0.29	0.41	0.00*	0.00*		0.90
8	IS	V	PL–	0.00*	0.00*	0.01*	0.02*	0.00*	0.00*	0.90	

When the form of codes is disregarded, reference to examples in each group proved to be comparable for PL+ and PL– items in both noun and verb entries. Even the largest, 12-percent difference in looking up examples of PL+ (71.8%) and PL– nouns (80.6%) by the advanced group lacked statistical significance according to the Tukey test. Overall, syntactic congruence between Polish and English lexical items did not exert any significant impact on the consultation of examples by the subjects in either noun or verb tests. Yet, the influence of the other factors depended on congruence levels.

The part of speech played a role in the advanced group only in the case of PL+ items, for which reference to examples was 20 percent more frequent in verb (86.3%) than noun entries (71.8%). In the intermediate group, examples were consulted significantly more often in verb tests as well. Although this regularity can be observed for both PL+ and PL– items, the difference was larger for the latter. The IS underlined examples for PL– verbs (96.9%) about 25 percent more often than for PL– nouns (78.6%). For PL+ items, the difference approximated 16 percent.

The level of proficiency significantly affected reference to examples only in entries for PL– verbs, where the IS (96.9%) selected examples 12

percent more often than the AS (86.7%). Otherwise, examples were referred comparably often by the IS and the AS.

The other significant three-factor interaction (LEVEL*POS*CODES) is displayed in Figure 61. The results of the Tukey HSD test are collated in Table 91.

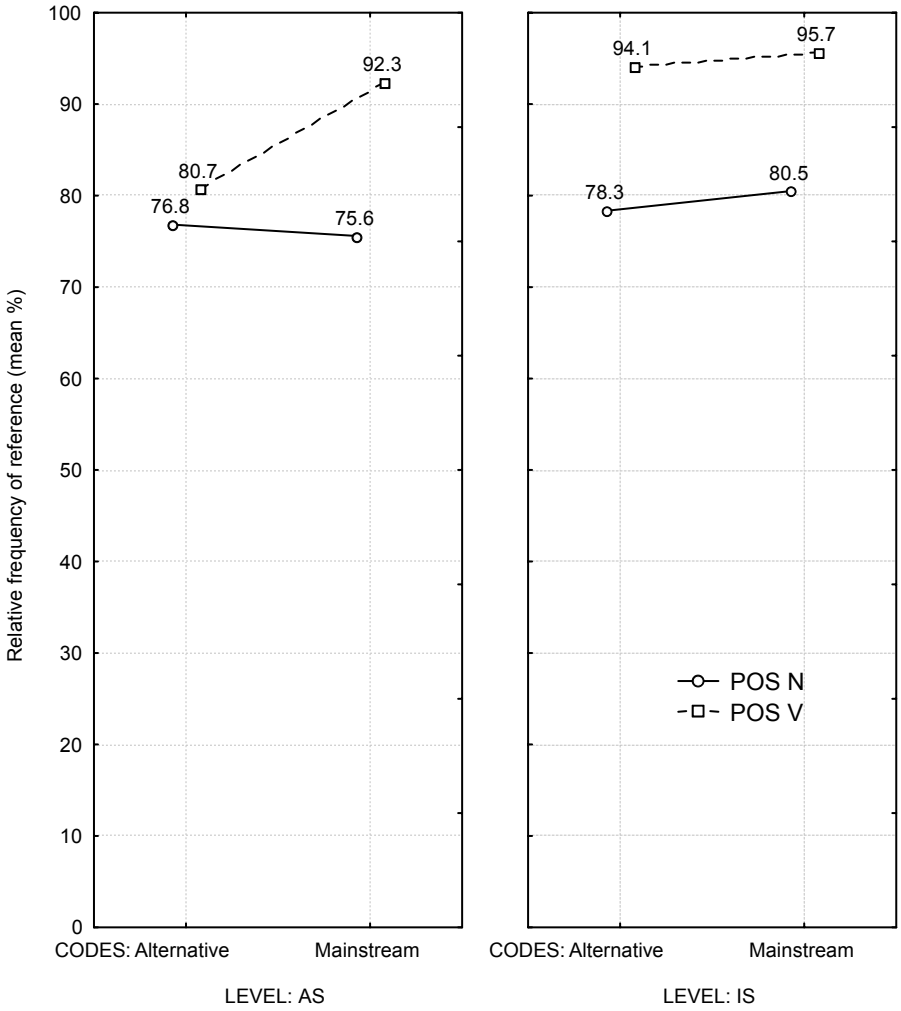

Figure 61. Interaction of LEVEL*POS*CODES (examples)

Table 91. The Tukey HSD test for LEVEL*POS*CODES (examples)

	LEVEL	POS	CODES	{1} 76.8	{2} 75.6	{3} 80.7	{4} 92.3	{5} 78.3	{6} 80.5	{7} 94.1	{8} 95.7
1	AS	N	A		1.00	0.86	0.00*	1.00	0.89	0.00*	0.00*
2	AS	N	M	1.00		0.61	0.00*	0.97	0.65	0.00*	0.00*
3	AS	V	A	0.86	0.61		0.00*	0.99	1.00	0.00*	0.00*
4	AS	V	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*		0.00*	0.00*	1.00	0.93
5	IS	N	A	1.00	0.97	0.99	0.00*		0.99	0.00*	0.00*
6	IS	N	M	0.89	0.65	1.00	0.00*	0.99		0.00*	0.00*
7	IS	V	A	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	1.00	0.00*	0.00*		1.00
8	IS	V	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.00*	0.93	0.00*	0.00*	1.00	

With respect to the role of the form of codes, the data indicate that in verb entries, the AS consulted examples 14 percent more often in the presence of mainstream codes (92.3%) than alternative ones (80.7%), and the difference was statistically significant. The form of codes did not seriously affect the frequency of reference to examples in noun entries in the advanced group and either in noun or verb entries in the intermediate one.

The part of speech played a statistically significant role at the intermediate level, where, irrespective of the form of codes in the microstructure, the IS underlined examples about 20 percent more often in verb entries than in those for nouns. Approximately the same effect was observed in the advanced group, where in verb entries with mainstream codes (92.3%) examples were selected 22 percent more often than in noun entries with codes of this type (75.6%). When alternative codes were present in the microstructure, the frequency of reference to examples by the AS was comparable in entries for nouns (76.8%) and verbs (80.7%).

Finally, it transpires that the level of proficiency significantly influenced reference to examples in verb tests with alternative codes, where the IS underlined examples (94.1%) about 17 percent more often than the AS (80.7%). In the other tests, the percentage of correct translations based on rightly identified examples was comparable across the two levels of proficiency.

Figure 62 and Table 92 show the data which make it possible to discuss the significant two-factor interaction of POS*CODES.

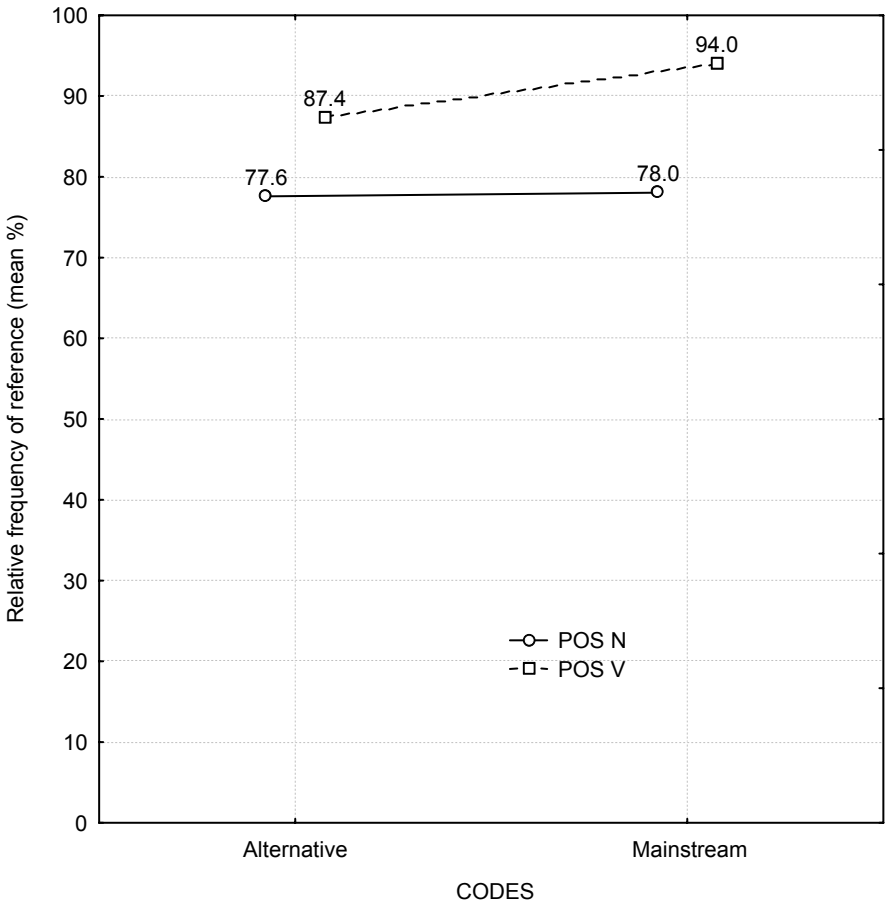

Figure 62. Interaction of POS*CODES (examples)

Table 92. The Tukey HSD test for POS*CODES (examples)

	POS	**CODES**	**{1} 77.6**	**{2} 78.0**	**{3} 87.4**	**{4} 94.0**
1	N	A		1.00	0.00*	0.00*
2	N	M	1.00		0.00*	0.00*
3	V	A	0.00*	0.00*		0.01*
4	V	M	0.00*	0.00*	0.01*	

When neither congruence nor proficiency is taken into consideration, it turns out that the form of codes played a statistically significant role in

verb entries; examples were consulted about 8 percent more frequently when the entries featured mainstream codes (94.0%) than alternative ones (87.4%). In noun entries, the form of codes did not significantly affect the subjects' reference to examples. Besides, it transpires that examples were underlined more often in entries for verbs than nouns. When mainstream codes were given in the microstructures, the difference exceeded 20 percent, while in the presence of alternative codes it was smaller and approximated 13 percent. Nonetheless, in both cases the role of the part of speech was statistically highly significant.

Figure 63 and Table 93 give data on the three significant main effects.

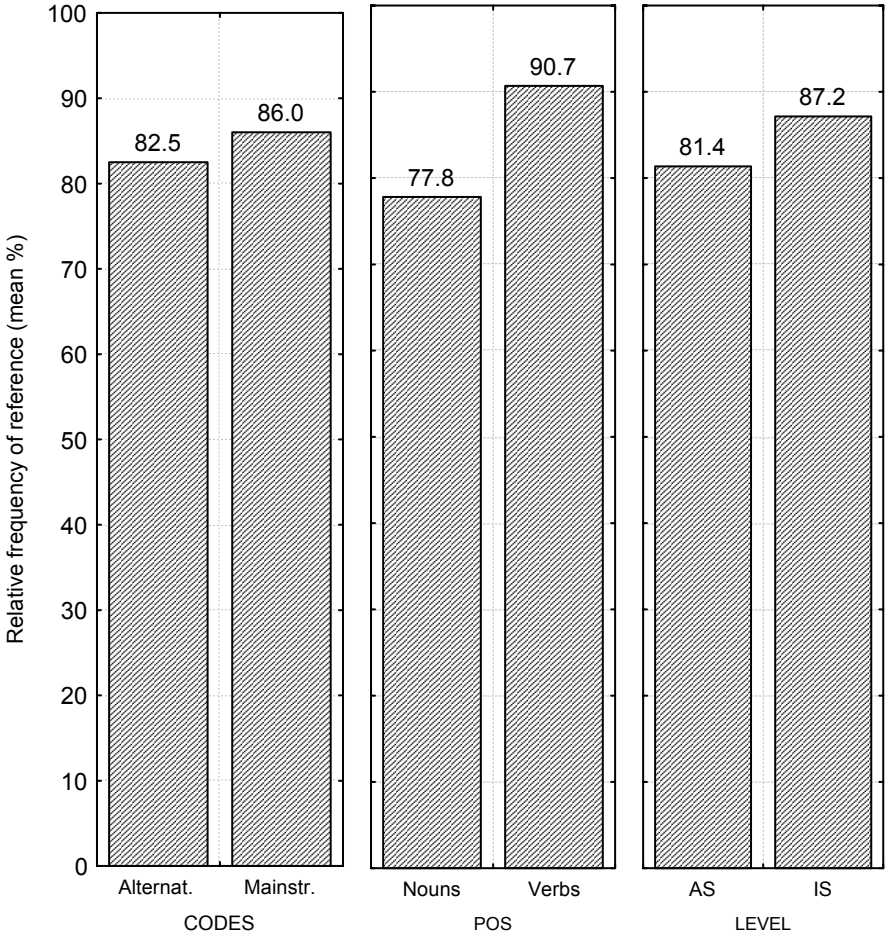

Figure 63. Main effects: CODES, POS and LEVEL (examples)

Table 93. The Tukey HSD test for CODES, POS and LEVEL (examples)

	CODES	**{1} 82.5**	**{2} 86.0**		**POS**	**{1} 77.8**	**{2} 90.7**		**LEVEL**	**{1} 81.4**	**{2} 87.2**
1	A		0.02*	1	N		0.00*	1	AS		0.00*
2	M	0.02*		2	V	0.00*		2	IS	0.00*	

In general, examples were referred to slightly over four percent more often in the presence of mainstream codes than alternative ones. Secondly, they were underlined 17 percent more frequently in entries for verbs than nouns. Finally, the intermediate level of proficiency stimulated over 7 percent more frequent consultation of examples than the advanced one. Although each of the factors significantly affected reference to examples, the influence of the form of codes was the weakest, while the impact of the part of speech proved to be the most powerful.

In the next section an attempt is made to briefly recapitulate the results from the experiment and examine them against the background of previous studies in the field.

3.2.4. Conclusions

Hypothesis one assumed that the presence of codes in the microstructure did not affect translation correctness. As already pointed out earlier in this chapter (section 3.1.2.3), the hypothesis was confirmed at the intermediate level and, with the exception of noun tests with mainstream codes, also at the advanced one. Yet, mainstream codes in noun entries were found to considerably facilitate language production by advanced dictionary users in comparison with codeless microstructures. It has also been noted that, as predicted in hypothesis two, examples were a more user-friendly source of syntactic information than codes.

The results of the ANOVA for codes make it possible to evaluate the other four hypotheses. For the sake of convenience, Table 94 presents schematically the significant main effects and interactions.

Table 94. The user-friendliness of codes: A summary

FACTORS	**EFFECTS**			
CONGRUENCE	PL+ ≈ PL–			
FORM OF CODES	A > M	***POS***	***LEVEL***	***POS, LEVEL***
		N: A ≈ M V: A > M	AS: A ≈ M IS: A > M	AS N: A < M AS V: A > M IS N: A ≈ M IS V: A > M
POS		***CODES***		***CODES, LEVEL***
		A: V > N M: V < N		AS A: V > N AS M: V < N IS A: V ≈ N IS M: V ≈ N
PROFICIENCY LEVEL	AS > IS	***CODES***		***POS, CODES***
		A: AS > IS M: AS > IS		NA: AS ≈ IS NM: AS > IS VA: AS > IS VM: AS > IS

As already pointed out in section 3.2.3.2.2.2, the results obtained in the experiment support hypothesis three and indicate that the user-friendliness of encoded syntactic information was not seriously influenced by the degree of syntactic congruence between English and Polish lexical items. In other words, the subjects were able to take advantage of codes irrespective of whether the information they conveyed tallied with or diverged from the grammar of Polish equivalents.

As for the form of codes, the most general results of the ANOVA show that alternative codes proved to be more user-friendly than mainstream ones. The significant two-factor interactions indicate, however, that the effect was conditioned by the part of speech as well as the subjects' proficiency in English. First, alternative codes were used more often than mainstream ones only in verb entries. In the case of nouns, the form of codes did not matter to the subjects. Second, the intermediate students opted for alternative codes rather than mainstream ones. The advanced learners chose alternative and mainstream codes comparably often. Yet, the interaction of all the three factors reveals that the apparent lack of any

influence of the form of codes at the higher proficiency level results from the opposite effects of the variable on the advanced students' choices in noun and verb entries. In noun entries, the subjects preferred mainstream codes, while in verb entries – alternative ones. The two effects, when combined together, largely offset one another thereby concealing the fact that the form of codes did play a role in the more advanced group as well, with that the role was different for nouns and verbs. The three-factor interaction also shows that the intermediate students' preference for alternative codes held, in fact, only for verb codes. Alternative and mainstream noun codes, in turn, were consulted comparably often by the intermediate subjects. Thus, hypothesis four of no influence of the form of codes on the user-friendliness of encoded syntactic information has to be rejected for the advanced learners and both noun and verb codes, as well as for the intermediate subjects, but only with respect to verb codes; there are no grounds to reject it for the intermediate learners' reliance on noun codes.

As for the role of the part of speech, it transpires that in the presence of alternative codes, encoded syntactic information was more user-friendly in verb entries than in those for nouns. When mainstream codes were given in the microstructure – the reverse was true; mainstream noun codes proved more user-friendly than mainstream verb codes. Yet, taking into consideration also the level of proficiency makes it clear that these relations obtained only in the more advanced group. For the intermediate learners, codes were comparably user-friendly in noun and verb entries, irrespective of whether they offered alternative or mainstream codes. Thus, hypothesis five of no influence of the grammatical category of headwords on the user-friendliness of codes cannot be accepted only for the advanced students. In the less advanced group it proved to be true.

Finally, overall, the more proficient dictionary users are, the more frequent recourse to codes becomes. Yet, when the part of speech and the form of codes are additionally considered, it turns out that greater proficiency coincided with greater user-friendliness of mainstream and alternative verb codes as well as that of mainstream noun codes. It proved to be of no consequence in the case of alternative noun codes. Thus, hypothesis six, which predicted no effect of proficiency level in this respect, cannot be rejected only for alternative noun codes.

In the light of the above findings, it is certainly inappropriate to talk about the user-friendliness of codes as such. It seems more reasonable to refer to the user-friendliness of certain types of codes for headwords rep-

resenting specific grammatical categories. Besides, dictionary users' proficiency in English needs to be borne in mind as well.

The study, centered on but not limited to the investigation of encoded syntactic information, throws light also on the user-friendliness of examples. Table 95 summarizes the most important findings.

Table 95. The user-friendliness of examples: A summary

FACTORS	**EFFECTS**			
CONGRUENCE	PL+ ≈ PL–			
FORM OF CODES	M > A	***POS***	***POS, LEVEL***	
		N: M ≈ A V: M > A	AS V: M > A AS N: M ≈ A	
			IS V: M ≈ A IS N: M ≈ A	
POS	V > N	***CODES***	***CODES, LEVEL***	***CONGR., LEVEL***
		A: V > N M: V > N	AS A: V ≈ N AS M: V > N	AS PL+: V > N AS PL–: V ≈ N
			IS A: V > N IS M: V > N	IS PL+: V > N IS PL–: V > N
PROFICIENCY LEVEL	AS < IS		***POS, CODES***	***CONGR., POS***
			VA: AS < IS NA: AS ≈ IS	V PL–: AS < IS V PL+: AS ≈ IS
			VM: AS ≈ IS NM: AS ≈ IS	N PL–: AS ≈ IS N PL+: AS ≈ IS

First, it transpires that, like in the case of codes, syntactic congruence itself did not play a statistically significant role in shaping the subjects' recourse to examples; the user-friendliness of examples illustrating PL+ and PL– items was comparable. Yet, congruence interacted with the part of speech and proficiency, whose influence it did affect.

Second, the main effect produced by the form of codes indicates that the presence of mainstream codes rendered examples more user-friendly than the vicinity of alternative codes in the microstructure. Yet, the sig-

nificant interaction with the part of speech shows that it was true only for verbs. In noun entries, examples were comparably user-friendly in the presence of alternative and mainstream codes. When proficiency level is additionally taken into account, it turns out that only the advanced subjects found examples considerably more user-friendly in verb entries with mainstream codes than in those with alternative ones. The form of codes did not significantly affect the user-friendliness of examples either for the advanced students consulting noun entries or the intermediate ones, regardless of the part of speech.

Third, the main effect of the part of speech suggests that examples which fleshed out the syntax of verbs were more user-friendly than those which illustrated the syntactic properties of nouns. Yet, the significant three-factor interactions in which the part of speech was involved show that this effect depended on proficiency, codes and congruence, and reveal under what circumstances it did not exist. On the one hand, it did not obtain when the advanced learners consulted entries with alternative codes, in the case of which the user-friendliness of examples in noun and verb entries proved comparable. On the other hand, it was not observed among the advanced participants referring to entries for PL– nouns and verbs, where the part of speech did not affect the user-friendliness of examples, either. Otherwise, examples illustrating verb headwords were indeed more user-friendly than those concerning nouns.

Fourth, it transpires that, overall, higher proficiency in English discouraged the advanced subjects from relying on examples. However, the significant interactions in which proficiency was involved reveal that its influence on the user-friendliness of examples was in fact quite limited. When the part of speech and the form of codes are taken into consideration, examples prove more user-friendly for the intermediate students only in verb entries with alternative codes. Paying attention to the part of speech and congruence shows, in turn, that such an effect obtained only in entries for PL– verbs. For the other levels of congruence, form of codes and part of speech, no statistically significant effect of proficiency on the user-friendliness of examples was noted.

The above summary of the main and ancillary findings from the study makes it easier to place them in the perspective of previous research in the field and see their practical implications.

3.2.5. Discussion

In view of the fact that, more often than not, the presence of codes did not seriously affect language production, it might be tempting to echo the suggestion by Bogaards and Van der Kloot (2002: 755-756), mentioned in section 1.5, that dictionaries should dispense with encoded syntactic information in entries. Yet, it should be borne in mind that the presence of mainstream codes in noun tests did enhance the advanced participants' performance in the translation task. Besides, no codes were found to adversely affect either the AS' or the IS' overall success in translation. Extreme caution is then needed when arguing for ridding dictionaries of codes. Naturally, looking at translations alone does not throw any light on the sources of syntactic information actually used by the subjects. Notwithstanding the limitations of the adopted method of tracing the subjects' choices in the microstructure (i.e. underlining), discussed in sections 1.1 and 1.5, the analysis of dictionary consultation in the translation task reveals that irrelevant codes were confused with relevant ones much less frequently than examples (section 3.2.2.3). The fact that codes proved less misleading than verbal illustrations should be appreciated since, as pointed out in section 3.2.2.3, even a better command of English does not prevent dictionary users from misidentifying sources of syntactic information in dictionary entries. Besides, it has also been found (section 3.1.3.4.2) that codes strengthened the positive role of the higher level of proficiency in limiting negative transfer from Polish. Although it is not known whether syntactic codes can have a similar deterrent effect on interference from other L1s in language production operationalized in different ways, the empirical evidence referred to above do doubt further substantiates Dziemianko's (2006: 188) research-based claim that dictionaries should not be cleared of codes. It seems that they should still feature in learners' dictionaries despite the fact that, like in Dziemianko's (2006: 188) study, they once again proved to be less user-friendly than examples.

The obtained results do not confirm the validity of the idea, presented in section 1.3, that maybe syntactic codes in pedagogical dictionaries, compiled for learners of English worldwide, should be adjusted to the needs of native speakers of a specific language, or localized. As far as coded information on nouns and verbs is concerned, there are no grounds to believe that differences in syntax between Polish and English seriously affect the user-friendliness of codes. Consequently, the study supplies no

empirical evidence for the localization of codes. Admittedly, the results hold for the Polish context and noun and verb codes only. Further research into practical consequences of semantic and grammatical anisomorphism between English and other languages should answer the question whether similar conclusions can be drawn for native speakers of other languages and other types of information in learners' dictionaries. For the time being, the ancillary analysis in section 3.2.3.2.2.3 shows that the user-friendliness of examples is also quite immune to the degree of syntactic congruence between English and Polish. Thus, no firm empirical support for the localization of examples as loci of syntactic information has been secured, either. Overall, then, as regards syntax, the study does not substantiate the claims that the trend towards internationalization in pedagogical lexicography should be reversed. However, only extending research to other areas of linguistic description could make it possible to judge whether learners' dictionaries should remain international in other respects as well.

The study reveals greater user-friendliness of alternative verb codes than mainstream ones at both proficiency levels, which, in fact, tallies with Dziemianko's (2006: 185) findings. Surprisingly, then, once again, the use of functional categories in verb codes proved to enhance their user-friendliness. This result appears to be counterintuitive. The greater user-friendliness of alternative codes presupposes a fairly high level of knowledge of syntactic functions and verb typology on the part of learners of English, also intermediate ones. Yet, this assumption does not have to be fundamentally flawed. In the Polish system of education, the distinction between various syntactic functions is introduced quite early. In accordance with the Polish language teaching content in the curriculum for grades 4-6 of primary school, a student is expected, among other things, to recognize basic syntactic functions of simple sentence constituents: subject, object, predicate, complement, attribute (PPKOSP: 22). In junior high school, in turn, a student should be able to identify different subject, predicate, object and complement types as well as differentiate between subordinate and coordinate clauses (PPKOGSP: 7). Admittedly, the aforementioned guidelines hold for teaching Polish, and similar standards are not mentioned in foreign language curricula even for high school, let alone junior high or primary school. In fact, many students who take up studying English at university initially have problems with supplying English names for syntactic functions. Be that as it may, Polish students,

even at the relatively early stage of education, can be assumed to have a good working knowledge of syntactic functions and syntactic relations, which might, at least to some extent, account for their predilection for codes referring to syntactic functions in dictionaries.

Another factor which might throw a new light on the user-friendliness of alternative verb codes is their saliency in dictionary entries.[25] They take up more space in the microstructure than their mainstream counterparts. Their greater length obviously makes them more easily noticeable. Thus, they might attract users' attention more often than shorter mainstream codes. Besides, since alternative verb codes are less condensed, they must be less intellectually taxing for dictionary users, thereby saving them at least some cognitive effort associated with finding correspondences between one-letter symbols and their meaning. In other words, better visibility and a lower degree of compression might account for the greater user-friendliness of alternative verb codes.

The user-friendliness of mainstream noun codes at the higher proficiency level does not seem surprising. After all, as pointed out in section 1.4.3.2.6, the properties of mass, variable and collective nouns are not represented there by means of symbols for the names of these noun categories, but rather the fundamentals of their syntax, that is countability alternation of reclassifiable nouns as well as plural concord with the verb of collective nouns in the singular, are explicitly shown in codes.[26] Besides, it seems that mainstream and alternative noun codes do not differ so much in length as verb codes, which suggests that they could be approximately equally salient to dictionary users. In view of the above, the intermediate students' relatively frequent reliance on alternative noun codes,

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[25] See Appendix A.4.

[26] It might be argued that even [C, U] does not reveal more about noun syntax to users ignorant of the properties of countable and uncountable nouns than [N-MASS]. However, the former at least shows the (type of) variability, which is virtually uninferable from the latter. Admittedly, though, some variability is implied also by [N-VAR]. Yet, the more initiated, like the advanced subjects in the study, are bound to appreciate the clear information on countability alternation conveyed by [C, U], rather than merely an indication of variability, without any details on its nature. Similar points can be raised with respect to [N-COUNT-COLL], where the abbreviation [-COLL] seems much less straightforward than [+sing./pl. v.] in codes like [C+sing./pl. v.]. Even though [-COUNT] might be less demanding here than [C], it is the information on subject-verb concord in number from the last part of the codes, rather than that on countability, that was needed to produce correct translations.

though not yet significantly more frequent than recourse to mainstream noun codes, is quite difficult to explain.

Those results of the study that relate to the role of the form of codes in shaping their user-friendliness imply the need for varied coding systems in learners' dictionaries. Apparently, advanced learners would be best served by alternative verb codes and mainstream noun codes. While alternative verb codes would be most suitable for intermediate students as well, recommendations on the system of noun codes are more difficult to make. The lack of statistical significance might suggest that the choice of the form of noun coding systems should be left to the discretion of lexicographers, or even publishing houses. Yet, arbitrariness and license in this regard might be misleading, considering the strong reliance of intermediate students on alternative noun codes. To avoid misguided attempts, further empirical research should provide fresh evidence about the most user-friendly noun codes for intermediate learners of English.

The observation that the advanced group relied on examples in verb entries more often in the presence of mainstream codes than alternative ones tallies with the conclusion drawn from the previous research that functional categories in verb codes diminish reliance on examples (Dziemianko 2006: 184). Still, the effect of the form of codes on the user-friendliness of examples is difficult to account for. At first sight, it might seem that the user-friendliness of examples depends on the user-friendliness of codes and that the form of codes is a common denominator of this correspondence. More specifically, the fact that in the advanced group, examples in verb entries with alternative codes were less user-friendly than those in verb entries with mainstream codes might be put down to the fact that in the same group, alternative verb codes were more user-friendly than mainstream verb codes. In other words, it can be conjectured that as the subjects found alternative codes (63.1%) more user-friendly than mainstream ones (37.8%), they relied less heavily on examples in the presence of the former (80.7%) than the latter (92.3%).[27] Yet, this line of reasoning justifies expecting similar dependence between the user-friendliness of codes and examples also in the case of noun entries in the advanced group as well as noun and verb entries in the intermediate one. However, the relations whereby more user-friendly codes reduce the user-friendliness of examples to a larger extent than less user-friendly

[27] The mean percentages are drawn from Table 85 (codes) and Table 91 (examples).

codes apparently failed to materialize. In all the remaining conditions, the form of codes did not affect the user-friendliness of examples, even though it had a statistically significant but opposite influence on the user-friendliness of noun and verb codes consulted by the advanced and the intermediate, respectively. In particular, while in the intermediate group, alternative verb codes were also found more user friendly than mainstream ones, like at the advanced level, the user-friendliness of examples illustrating the syntax of verbs did not hinge on the type of coding system employed in the microstructure. Thus, the present study does not demonstrate any straightforward associations between the user-friendliness of examples and codes due to the form of coded information.

The conclusion that examples are in general more user friendly in entries for verbs than nouns is consistent with the view expressed by Bogaards (1996: 309) that examples are especially important in the case of verbs, since they show in a practical way how structural selections come to life and thus provide models to be followed. The findings addressing the relationship between the part of speech and the user-friendliness of codes are difficult to relate to other opinions or research results, since, as mentioned in section 1.5, the question has not been taken as a starting point for empirical investigation so far. Those, in turn, which demonstrate a beneficial influence of higher proficiency on the user-friendliness of codes support Dziemianko's (2006: 185) conclusions. It should be remembered, however, that alternative codes in noun tests proved comparably user-friendly at both proficiency levels. This suggests that syntactic codes should not be unique to dictionaries for advanced learners.[28] Dziemianko's (2006) findings concerning the effect of proficiency level on the user-friendliness of examples have been corroborated by the present study as well. By and large, in both investigations better knowledge of English was found either to discourage reliance on examples or was inconsequential in this respect.[29]

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[28] Although Bogaards and Van der Kloot's (2002) study was not concerned with the user-friendliness of codes, the authors' observation that coded information was hardy ever used even by advanced students implies that if a source of information is infrequently consulted, it cannot be user-friendly, either. Such a generalization obviously conflicts with the results presented above.

[29] On the one hand, the remarkable lack of any influence of proficiency on recourse to verbal illustrations exposed by the present study is consonant with Dziemianko's (2006: 185) findings for the microstructures with entry-internal codes. On the other

Unfortunately, the study is limited in a number of ways. First, only two parts of speech were considered. Moreover, verbs were further restricted to those occurring in specific syntactic patterns, and only the categories of reclassifiable and collective nouns were singled out for analysis.[30] The translation task was also heavily controlled so that no spontaneous language production was elicited from the subjects, and the entries offered for consultation were limited to one sense each. It might be worthwhile to see whether, or to what extent, the conclusions about the user-friendliness of (coded) syntactic information are conditioned by the imposed restraints. Second, reliance on the answers supplied by university students might yield results which are not representative of all advanced English learners. Kernerman (2000: 827-828) seems to be right claiming that dependence on university students in research into dictionary use might give a distorted picture of dictionary consultation. Third, the study was set exclusively in the Polish context, where grammar features prominently in school curricula even at the early stages of education. This implies the need for verifying the effect of native language background on the user-friendliness of (certain types of) coding systems and, by the same token, on decisions on whether to localize encoded syntactic information in learners' dictionaries. For this purpose, the help of native speakers of other languages, who acquired education outside Poland, would be absolutely invaluable.

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hand, the conclusion about the negative effect of a better command of English on reference to examples in verb entries with alternative codes is reminiscent of her findings for verb entries with codes placed in the margin of the entry, in the COBUILD1-5 style. Although the two investigations are not perfectly comparable due to design differences, including the positioning of codes, none of them demonstrated a positive role of better knowledge of English in shaping the user-friendliness of examples.

[30] As mentioned in section 3.1.3.4.1, even the types of verbs on which concord in number with the selected collective nouns had to be marked might have affected the subjects' performance.

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Appendix A

A.1. KWESTIONARIUSZ DLA UCZNIA

Wybierz prawdziwą odpowiedź stawiając krzyżyk w odpowiedniej kratce ☒ lub wpisz brakującą informację w puste miejsce.

1. Kobieta ☐ Mężczyzna ☐

2. Czy w uzupełnianiu tłumaczeń pomógł Ci opis symboli umieszczony na końcu testu?

a. nie przeczytałam/em go nawet ☐
b. przeczytałam/em, ale nie zrozumiałam/em i nie pomógł mi ☐
c. przeczytałam/em i zrozumiałam/em, ale nie pomógł mi ☐
d. przeczytałam/em, zrozumiałam/em i pomógł mi ☐

3. Czy używasz słownika angielsko-angielskiego dla uczących się?

	bardzo często	czasami	nigdy
a. tak, pracując samodzielnie w domu	☐	☐	☐
b. tak, uczestnicząc w zajęciach w szkole / na uniwersytecie	☐	☐	☐

Jeżeli wszystkie wybrane odpowiedzi to *nigdy*, nie odpowiadaj na dalsze pytania.

4. Czy w słowniku angielsko-angielskim dla uczących się:

a. sprawdzasz częściej:
rzeczowniki niż czasowniki ☐
czasowniki niż rzeczowniki ☐
nie zauważyłam/em różnicy ☐

b. łatwiej znaleźć Ci potrzebną informację o:
rzeczownikach niż czasownikach ☐
czasownikach niż rzeczownikach ☐
nie zauważyłam/em różnicy ☐

5. Czy korzystasz ze słownika angielsko-angielskiego dla uczących się, aby sprawdzić:

	często	czasami	prawie nigdy
a. wymowę	☐	☐	☐
b. pisownię	☐	☐	☐
c. część mowy	☐	☐	☐
d. znaczenie	☐	☐	☐
e. użycie w zdaniu	☐	☐	☐
f. kontekst sytuacyjny użycia (formalne, nieformalne, obraźliwe itp.)	☐	☐	☐
g. jakie słówka mają podobne/przeciwne znaczenie	☐	☐	☐

6. Czy udaje Ci się znaleźć w słowniku angielsko-angielskim dla uczących się:

	często	czasami	prawie nigdy
a. wymowę	☐	☐	☐
b. pisownię	☐	☐	☐
c. część mowy	☐	☐	☐
d. znaczenie	☐	☐	☐
e. użycie w zdaniu	☐	☐	☐
f. kontekst sytuacyjny użycia (formalne, nieformalne, obraźliwe itp.)	☐	☐	☐
g. słówka, które mają podobne/przeciwne znaczenie	☐	☐	☐

7. Czy zapoznałeś się z objaśnieniem symboli użytych w słownikach angielsko-angielskich dla uczących się, z których korzystasz, umieszczonym na początku, końcu lub w środku tych słowników?
   tak ☐
   nie ☐
   w niektórych słownikach zapoznałam/em się, w innych nie ☐

8. Wymień angielsko-angielskie słowniki dla uczących się, których używasz (tytuł, wydanie, rok wydania, redaktor, wydawnictwo – ile pamiętasz).

Uprzejmie dziękuję za współpracę.

A.2. KWESTIONARIUSZ DLA NAUCZYCIELA ANGLISTY PROWADZĄCEGO GRUPĘ BIORĄCĄ UDZIAŁ W EKSPERYMENCIE

1. Nazwa i adres instytucji oraz jej typ (szkoła publiczna, prywatna, szkoła językowa, inne):

2. Klasa/grupa .....
3. Liczba uczniów biorących udział w eksperymencie .....
4. Podstawowy podręcznik do nauki języka angielskiego wykorzystywany na zajęciach (autor, tytuł, miejsce i rok wydania, wskazany poziom):

5. Pani/Pańska ocena poziomu grupy/klasy (właściwe podkreślić):
   beginner
   pre-intermediate
   intermediate
   upper-intermediate
   advanced

6. Uwagi dodatkowe dotyczące poziomu grupy/klasy:

7. Data:

A.3. INSTRUKCJA DLA NAUCZYCIELA ANGLISTY PRZEPROWADZAJĄCEGO EKSPERYMENT

1. Poinformować uczniów/studentów o tym, że eksperyment jest anonimowy i że nigdzie nie należy umieszczać swojego nazwiska.
2. Rozdać arkusze testu. Uwaga! Kopie testu dostarczone dla każdej grupy są ułożone w odpowiednim porządku. Należy je rozdać w otrzymanej kolejności.
3. Przedstawić uczniom instrukcję z testu oznaczonego NCA, NCM, VCA lub VCM wyjaśniając, że opis symboli użytych w hasłach słownikowych znajduje się tylko w niektórych testach. Należy następnie ustnie objaśnić, że rola uczniów polega na wykonaniu **dwóch** zadań: dokończeniu tłumaczeń zdań na język angielski przy użyciu wskazanych słów oraz podkreślaniu pomocnych elementów w hasłach słownikowych. Bardzo proszę uczulić uczniów szczególnie na to, aby nie zapominali podkreślać pomocnych części haseł. Proszę zaznaczyć, że kwestionariusz zamieszczony na ostatniej stronie należy wypełnić dopiero **po** zakończeniu wykonywania zadań w teście.
4. Proszę dać uczniom/studentom ok. 35 min. na rozwiązanie testu i wypełnienie kwestionariusza znajdującego się na ostatniej stronie. Należy w tym czasie przypominać, aby uczniowie/studenci nie tylko uzupełniali tłumaczenia, ale również podkreślali w hasłach słownikowych te elementy, którymi kierują się rozwiązując test. Proszę pod koniec przypomnieć również o tym, że powinni wypełnić kwestionariusz.
5. Po upływie przeznaczonego czasu należy zabrać testy i włożyć do oryginalnej koperty.
6. Proszę wypełnić kwestionariusz dla nauczyciela anglisty prowadzącego zajęcia z grupą biorącą udział w badaniach, lub porosić nauczyciela angielskiego w tej grupie o wypełnienie kwestionariusza.
7. Wypełniony kwestionariusz dla nauczyciela należy włożyć do koperty z testami wypełnionymi przez uczniów oraz pustymi arkuszami, jeżeli takie pozostały.

Dziękuję za współpracę

A.4. NCA

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Opis symboli użytych w hasłach słownikowych znajdziesz na końcu testu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Muszą pracować jak ekipa, która jest tak mocna, jak jej najsłabszy członek.

> nautch /nɔ:tʃ/ *noun* [N-COUNT-COLL] people who have been chosen to work together to do a particular job: *Penny has a wealth of experience and the nautch is reaping the benefits of her expertise.* ◊ *The nautch were congratulating themselves on having recruited such an able young lady.*

They must work as …… which ……..…. as its weakest member.

2. Stara obsada, która go wspierała, jest teraz co najmniej w średnim wieku, ale efekty jej pracy wciąż trwają.

> brogan /'brəʊgᵊn/ *noun* [N-COUNT-COLL] anyone who performs in a film, play, show: *The whole brogan performs brilliantly.* ◊ *The show is very amusing and the brogan are very good.*

The ……..…… who supported him ……..…….…… middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.

A.4. NCM

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Opis symboli użytych w hasłach słownikowych znajdziesz na końcu testu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Muszą pracować jak ekipa, która jest tak mocna, jak jej najsłabszy członek.

> nautch /nɔ:tʃ/ *noun* [C+sing./pl. v.] people who have been chosen to work together to do a particular job: *Penny has a wealth of experience and the nautch is reaping the benefits of her expertise.* ◊ *The nautch were congratulating themselves on having recruited such an able young lady.*

They must work as …… which ……..…. as its weakest member.

2. Stara obsada, która go wspierała, jest teraz co najmniej w średnim wieku, ale efekty jej pracy wciąż trwają.

> brogan /'brəʊgᵊn/ *noun* [C+sing./pl. v.] anyone who performs in a film, play, show: *The whole brogan performs brilliantly.* ◊ *The show is very amusing and the brogan are very good.*

The ……..…… who supported him ……..……..…… middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.

A.4. NC0

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Muszą pracować jak ekipa, która jest tak mocna, jak jej najsłabszy członek.

> nautch /nɔ:tʃ/ *noun* people who have been chosen to work together to do a particular job: *Penny has a wealth of experience and the nautch is reaping the benefits of her expertise.* ◊ *The nautch were congratulating themselves on having recruited such an able young lady.*

They must work as …… which ……..…. as its weakest member.

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> brogan /'brəʊgᵊn/ *noun* anyone who performs in a film, play, show: *The whole brogan performs brilliantly.* ◊ *The show is very amusing and the brogan are very good.*

The ……..…… who supported him ……..……..…… middle-aged, but the effects of their work are still present.

A.4. VCA

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Opis symboli użytych w hasłach słownikowych znajdziesz na końcu testu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagałoby od kierowców, aby kupowali zdrapki do zaznaczenia długości postoju.

> `loricate` /ˈlɒrɪkeɪt || ˈlɒrɪkeɪt/ *verb* to include something as a necessary part: [T + obj] *The course loricates a great deal of hard work.* ◊ [T + -ing] *Running your own business usually loricates working long hours.* ◊ [T + obj + -ing] *The job loricates me travelling all over the country.*

Introducing fees for car parking would ……... scratch cards to mark the length of stay.

2. Brytyjczycy przewidują, że wojska ONZ zastąpią oddziały irackie na tym terenie.

> `brail` /breɪl/ *verb* to consider something as possible: [T + -ing] *I don't brail working with him again.* ◊ [T + obj + -ing] *I can't brail her coping with this job.* ◊ [T + question word] *It's hard to brail how it could have happened.*

The British ……... Iraqi forces in the area.

A.4. VCM

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Opis symboli użytych w hasłach słownikowych znajdziesz na końcu testu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagałoby od kierowców, aby kupowali zdrapki do zaznaczenia długości postoju.

> `loricate` /ˈlɒrɪkeɪt || ˈlɒrɪkeɪt/ *verb* to include something as a necessary part: [Vn] *The course loricates a great deal of hard work.* ◊ [V -ing] *Running your own business usually loricates working long hours.* ◊ [Vn -ing] *The job loricates me travelling all over the country.*

Introducing fees for car parking would ……... scratch cards to mark the length of stay.

2. Brytyjczycy przewidują, że wojska ONZ zastąpią oddziały irackie na tym terenie.

> `brail` /breɪl/ *verb* to consider something as possible: [V -ing] *I don't brail working with him again.* ◊ [Vn -ing] *I can't brail her coping with this job.* ◊ [V -wh] *It's hard to brail how it could have happened.*

The British ……... Iraqi forces in the area.

A.4. VC0

Poniżej znajdziesz kilka polskich zdań częściowo przetłumaczonych na język angielski. Uzupełnij brakujące fragmenty tłumaczeń używając konstrukcji z angielskim wyrazem, który odpowiada polskiemu wyrazowi podkreślonemu w zdaniu do tłumaczenia. Hasło słownikowe dla każdego takiego angielskiego słówka jest podane tuż pod zdaniem. Podkreśl w każdym haśle informację, która pomogła Ci poprawnie użyć angielskie słówko w tłumaczeniu. Na ostatniej stronie znajduje się kwestionariusz, który wypełnij dopiero, gdy skończysz wszystkie tłumaczenia i podkreślisz we wszystkich hasłach słownikowych informację, z której korzystałaś/eś.

1. Wprowadzenie opłat za parkowanie samochodu wymagałoby od kierowców, aby kupowali zdrapki do zaznaczenia długości postoju.

> `loricate` /ˈlɒrɪkeɪt || ˈlɒrɪkeɪt/ *verb* to include something as a necessary part: *The course loricates a great deal of hard work.* ◊ *Running your own business usually loricates working long hours.* ◊ *The job loricates me travelling all over the country.*

Introducing fees for car parking would ……... scratch cards to mark the length of stay.

2. Brytyjczycy przewidują, że wojska ONZ zastąpią oddziały irackie na tym terenie.

> `brail` /breɪl/ *verb* to consider something as possible: *I don't brail working with him again.* ◊ *I can't brail her coping with this job.* ◊ *It's hard to brail how it could have happened.*

The British ……... Iraqi forces in the area.

A.5. NCA

CODES USED IN ENTRIES

N-COUNT
A countable noun; it has a plural form, usually made by adding -s. When it is singular, it must have a determiner in front of it, such as *the, a, such, both, each*.
I'm having a driving lesson this afternoon.
Lessons cost 20 dollars an hour.

N-COUNT-COLL
A collective countable noun; it is a countable noun which refers to a group of people or things. It behaves like a countable noun, but when it is used in the singular form it can be used with either a singular or plural verb.
The committee has/have decided to dismiss him.
Note: when the noun is in the singular form and the verb is plural, pronouns such as *who, whom, they, them* are necessary; when the noun is in the singular form and the verb is singular, pronouns such as *which, it* are used:
a family who quarrel among themselves,
a family which dates back to the Norman conquest.

N-MASS
A mass noun; it typically combines the behavior of both countable and uncountable nouns in the same sense. It is used like an uncountable noun to refer to a substance. It is used like a countable noun to refer to a brand or type.
Rinse in cold water to remove any remaining detergent.
Wash it in hot water with a good detergent.
We used several detergents in our stain-removal tests.

N-SING-COLL
A collective singular noun; it is a singular noun which refers to a group of people or things. It behaves like a singular noun, i.e., is always singular and needs a determiner, but can be used with either a singular or plural verb.

The clientele is/are mostly women with babies.
Note: when the verb is plural, pronouns such as *who, whom, they, them* are necessary; when the verb is singular, pronouns such as *which, it* are used:
the clientele who quarrel among themselves,
the clientele which is enormous.

N-UNCOUNT
An uncountable noun; it refers to things that are not normally counted or considered to be individual items. Uncountable nouns do not have a plural form, and are used with a singular verb. They do not need determiners.
Can we make space for an extra chair?
There isn't much space in the room.

N-VAR
A variable noun; it usually combines the behavior of uncountable and countable nouns in the same sense. The singular form occurs freely both with and without determiners. Variable nouns also have a plural form, usually made by adding *-s*. Some variable nouns when used like uncountable nouns refer to abstract things, and when used like countable nouns refer to individual examples or instances of that thing. Others refer to objects which can be mentioned either individually or generally.
Seven men, all from Bristol, admitted conspiracy to commit arson.
He believes there probably was a conspirancy to kill President Kennedy in 1963.

A.5. NCM

CODES USED IN ENTRIES

[C]
A countable noun; it has a plural form, usually made by adding -*s*. When it is singular, it must have a determiner in front of it, such as *the*, *a*, *such*, *both, each.*
I'm having a driving lesson this afternoon,
Lessons cost 20 dollars an hour.

[C+sing./pl. v.]
A countable noun which refers to a group of people or things. It behaves like a countable noun, but when it is used in the singular form it can be used with either a singular or plural verb.
The committee has/have decided to dismiss him.
Note: when the noun is in the singular form and the verb is plural, pronouns such as *who, whom, they, them* are necessary; when the noun is in the singular form and the verb is singular, pronouns such as *which, it* are used:
a family who quarrel among themselves,
a family which dates back to the Norman conquest.

[sing.+ sing./pl. v.]
A singular noun which refers to a group of people or things. It behaves like a singular noun, i.e., is always singular and needs a determiner, but can be used with either a singular or plural verb.
The clientele is/are mostly women with babies.
Note: when the verb is plural, pronouns such as *who, whom, they, them* are necessary; when the verb is singular, pronouns such as *which, it* are used:
the clientele who quarrel among themselves,
the clientele which is enormous.

[U]
An uncountable noun; it refers to things that are not normally counted or considered to be individual items. Uncountable nouns do not have a plural form, and are used with a singular verb. They do not need determiners.

Can we make space for an extra chair?
There isn't much space in the room.

[C, U]
A noun which typically combines the behavior of both countable and uncountable nouns in the same sense. It is used like an uncountable noun to refer to a substance. It is used like a countable noun to refer to a brand or type.
Rinse in cold water to remove any remaining detergent.
Wash it in hot water with a good detergent.
We used several detergents in our stain-removal tests.

[U, C]
A noun which usually combines the behavior of uncountable and countable nouns in the same sense. The singular form occurs freely both with and without determiners. Such nouns also have a plural form, usually made by adding *-s*. Some of them when used like uncountable nouns refer to abstract things, and when used like countable nouns refer to individual examples or instances of that thing. Others refer to objects which can be mentioned either individually or generally.
Seven men, all from Bristol, admitted conspiracy to commit arson.
He believes there probably was a conspirancy to kill President Kennedy in 1963.

A.5. VCA

SYMBOLS USED IN DICTIONARY ENTRIES

The category of the verb being explained is in CAPITAL LETTERS. Other symbols form patterns which show how the verb being explained is used. The order of symbols in a pattern is their order in a sentence. Words in *italics* are concrete words (e.g. *on, at, against*) that occur in the pattern. For instance, [T+obj+*against* n] means that the word being explained is a transitive verb (T), and it is followed in a sentence by an object (obj), then the word *against*, and then a noun group (n).

T – transitive verb – a verb which must have an object. The object can be a noun, a pronoun, a noun phrase or a clause, e.g.,
eat in *I don't eat meat,*
annoy in *Jill's behaviour annoyed me,*
drive in *She drives a fast car,*
complain in *George complained that it was too hot.*

adj – adjective, e.g., *lucky* in *She considered herself lucky*.

-ing – present participle of a verb, e.g., *talking* in *She never stops talking.*

n – noun group which is not the object of a transitive verb. The symbol stands for:

* a noun or a noun phrase which names or describes the object, i.e., is the object complement, e.g., *Hamlet* in *I named my dog Hamlet* or *world champion* in *They crowned him world champion.*

* a noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase which follows a preposition, e.g., *cash* in *They paid me with cash*, *him* in *Let me talk to him* or *my window* in *Knock at my window and I will be ready.*

obj – nominal or pronominal object – a noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase which follows a transitive verb and refers to something or someone affected by what the subject does, e.g., *dinner* in *We are eating dinner*, *them* in *I blame them* or *her bags* in *Nora packed her bags.*

question word – a word which introduces a *wh-* clause or phrase; a clause or phrase which begins with one of the following words: *which, what, whose, why, where, when, who, whom, how, if whether*, e.g.,
what the new job will be like in *I wonder what the new job will be like,*
how she looks in *He doesn't care how she looks,*
where the library was in *I asked him where the library was,*
when the baby was due in *I told her when the baby was due.*

speech – direct speech; often found in quotation marks (“ ”), e.g.,
“Tom's coming to lunch”, she told him,
The man leaned forward and whispered “What's your name?”,
“Good Lord”, she gasped, “I didn't see you there!”
Note that the position of a quotation in a sentence is not fixed.

to infinitive – to-infinitive form of a verb, e.g., *to read* in *She never learned to read.*

A.5. VCM

SYMBOLS USED IN DICTIONARY ENTRIES

The word class (part of speech) of the word being explained is in CAPITAL LETTERS. Other symbols form patterns which show how the verb being explained is used. The order of symbols in a pattern is their order in a sentence. Words in *italics* are concrete words (e.g. *on, at, against*), and not word classes, that occur in the pattern. For instance, [Vn *against* n] means that the word being explained is a verb (V), and it is followed in a sentence by a noun group (n), then the word *against*, and then another noun group (n).

V – verb, e.g.,
sigh in *He sighed,*
cut in *She cut her hand,*
taste in *The soup tastes salty.*

adj – adjective, e.g.,
lucky in *She considered herself lucky.*

-ing – present participle of a verb, e.g.,
talking in *She never stops talking.*

n – noun group, that is a noun, a pronoun or a noun phrase, e.g.,
queen in *She became queen in 1952,*
me in *Jill's behaviour annoyed me,*
a fast car in *She drives a fast car.*

-wh – a *wh*-clause or phrase, a clause or phrase which begins with one of the following words: *which, what, whose, why, where, when, who, whom, how, if whether*, e.g.,
what the new job will be like in *I wonder what the new job will be like,*
how she looks in *He doesn't care how she looks,*
where the library was in *I asked him where the library was,*
when the baby was due in *I told her when the baby was due.*

speech – direct speech; often found in quotation marks (“ ”), e.g.,

"Tom's coming to lunch", she told him,
The man leaned forward and whispered "What's your name?",
"Good Lord", she gasped, "I didn't see you there!"
Note that the position of a quotation in a sentence is not fixed.

to inf – to-infinitive form of a verb, e.g.,
to read in *She never learned to read.*

Appendix B

Table B.1. Distribution of test versions by gender: Expected frequencies and deviances

Group	Test	Expected frequencies			Relative discrepancies		
		Women	Men	Sum	Women	Men	Sum
AS	NCA	68.9	15.1	84.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
	NCM	69.7	15.3	85.0	0.1	0.3	0.4
	NC0	68.1	14.9	83.0	0.1	0.6	0.7
	VCA	69.7	15.3	85.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	VCM	68.9	15.1	84.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	VC0	70.6	15.4	86.0	0.3	1.3	1.6
	Sum	416.0	91.0	507.0	0.5	2.3	2.813
IS	NCA	43.6	25.4	69.0	0.1	0.2	0.4
	NCM	41.1	23.9	65.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	NC0	39.2	22.8	62.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	VCA	41.7	24.3	66.0	0.2	0.3	0.5
	VCM	41.1	23.9	65.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
	VC0	37.3	21.7	59.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Sum	244.0	142.0	386.0	0.3	0.6	0.901

Table B.2. Consultation, comprehension and use of the extra information on codes: Expected frequencies and deviances

Group	Test	Expected frequencies										Relative discrepancies				
		A	B	C	D	Sum	A+B	C	D	Sum		A+B	C	D	Sum
AS	NCA	54.6	*0.0*	8.3	21.1	84	54.6	8.3	21.1	84		1.1	2.7	0.4	4.1
	NCM	54.6	*0.0*	8.3	21.1	84	54.6	8.3	21.1	84		0.4	0.6	2.2	3.3
	VCA	53.3	*0.0*	8.1	20.6	82	53.3	8.1	20.6	82		1.1	0.1	2.1	3.4
	VCM	54.6	*0.0*	8.3	21.1	84	54.6	8.3	21.1	84		0.4	0.2	0.5	1.0
	Sum	217.0	*0.0*	33.0	84.0	334	217.0	33.0	84.0	334.0		2.9	3.7	5.2	11.784
IS	**Test**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**Sum**					**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**	**Sum**
	NCM	39.9	5.8	11.6	10.8	68					0.0	0.1	1.1	2.5	3.8
	NCA	37.0	5.4	10.7	10.0	63					0.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	2.1
	VCM	38.1	5.5	11.0	10.3	65					0.4	0.4	0.1	1.8	2.7
	VCA	37.0	5.4	10.7	10.0	63					0.1	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.9
	Sum	152	22	44	41	259					0.5	2.0	2.4	4.4	9.376

Table B.3. Frequency of dictionary consultation by situational context: Expected frequencies and deviances[1]

		Test	Expected frequencies							Relative discrepancies			
			VO	**S**	**N**	**Sum**	**VO**	**S+N**	**Sum**		**VO**	**S+N**	**Sum**
AS	A (at home)	NCA	60.3	22.7	*1.0*	84.0	60.3	23.7	84.0		0.0	0.1	0.1
		NCM	61.0	23.0	*1.0*	85.0	61.0	24.0	85.0		0.0	0.0	0.0
		NC0	59.6	22.4	*1.0*	83.0	59.6	23.4	83.0		0.2	0.5	0.7
		VCA	61.0	23.0	*1.0*	85.0	61.0	24.0	85.0		0.1	0.4	0.5
		VCM	60.3	22.7	*1.0*	84.0	60.3	23.7	84.0		0.2	0.5	0.6
		VC0	61.7	23.2	*1.0*	86.0	61.7	24.3	86.0		0.0	0.1	0.2
		Sum	364.0	137.0	6.0	507.0	364.0	143.0	507.0		0.6	1.5	2.124
	B (in class)	**Test**	**VO**	**S**	**N**	**Sum**				**VO**	**S**	**N**	**Sum**
		NCA	11.9	36.1	27.9	76.0				0.1	0.0	0.1	0.3
		NCM	11.8	35.7	27.6	75.0				0.9	0.1	0.8	1.7
		NC0	11.1	33.7	26.1	71.0				0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1
		VCA	10.7	32.3	25.0	68.0				0.3	0.2	0.0	0.5
		VCM	11.6	35.2	27.2	74.0				1.1	0.5	2.2	3.9
		VC0	12.9	39.0	30.2	82.0				0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
		Sum	70.0	212.0	164.0	446.0				2.4	0.8	3.2	6.409
IS	A (at home)	**Test**	**VO**	**S**	**N**	**Sum**				**VO**	**S**	**N**	**Sum**
		NCA	11.7	32.9	21.4	66.0				1.6	0.1	0.3	1.9
		NCM	10.8	30.4	19.8	61.0				1.4	0.0	0.5	1.9
		NC0	10.6	29.9	19.4	60.0				0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2
		VCA	10.1	28.4	18.5	57.0				0.4	0.1	0.0	0.4
		VCM	9.9	27.9	18.1	56.0				0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3
		VC0	9.8	27.4	17.8	55.0				1.4	0.5	0.0	1.9
		Sum	63.0	177.0	115.0	355.0				4.8	0.8	1.0	6.634
	B (in class)	**Test**	**VO**	**S**	**N**	**Sum**	**VO +S**	**N**	**Sum**		**VO +S**	**N**	**Sum**
		NCA	*4.9*	28.1	26.0	59.0	33.0	26.0	59.0		0.3	0.3	0.6
		NCM	*4.4*	25.3	23.3	53.0	29.7	23.3	53.0		0.2	0.2	0.4
		NC0	*4.7*	27.2	25.1	57.0	31.9	25.1	57.0		0.5	0.7	1.2
		VCA	*4.2*	24.3	22.5	51.0	28.5	22.5	51.0		0.1	0.1	0.2
		VCM	*4.5*	25.8	23.8	54.0	30.2	23.8	54.0		0.6	0.7	1.3
		VC0	*4.4*	25.3	23.3	53.0	29.7	23.3	53.0		0.5	0.6	1.0
		Sum	27.0	156.0	144.0	327.0	183.0	144.0	327.0		2.1	2.7	4.781

[1] VO = very often, S = sometimes, N = never

Table B.4. Reference to dictionaries and success in dictionary consultation: Nouns and verbs (expected frequencies and deviances)

Group	Point	Test	Expected frequencies				Relative discrepancies			
			N>V	ND	V>N	Sum	N>V	ND	V>N	Sum
AS	4A (Reference)	NC0	14.0	59.8	9.2	83.0	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.8
		NC1	14.2	60.5	9.3	84.0	0.7	0.0	0.8	1.5
		NC2	13.7	58.3	9.0	81.0	3.2	0.0	2.8	6.1
		VC0	15.0	64.1	9.9	89.0	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.3
		VC1	14.0	59.8	9.2	83.0	0.1	0.1	1.1	1.3
		VC2	14.2	60.5	9.3	84.0	1.6	0.1	0.6	2.3
		Sum	85.0	363.0	56.0	504.0	6.2	0.3	5.8	12.319
	4B (Success)	NC0	16.7	52.1	14.2	83.0	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.5
		NC1	16.9	52.8	14.4	84.0	1.6	0.0	1.3	2.9
		NC2	17.1	53.4	14.5	85.0	0.5	0.0	0.9	1.4
		VC0	17.1	53.4	14.5	85.0	0.0	0.2	0.8	1.0
		VC1	16.5	51.5	14.0	82.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7
		VC2	16.9	52.8	14.4	84.0	0.9	0.1	2.2	3.2
		Sum	101.0	316.0	86.0	503.0	3.5	0.6	5.6	9.667
IS	4A (Reference)	NC0	5.1	34.4	8.5	48.0	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.5
		NC1	5.3	35.1	8.6	49.0	1.0	0.0	0.6	1.6
		NC2	5.4	35.8	8.8	50.0	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.9
		VC0	5.1	34.4	8.5	48.0	2.9	0.0	2.4	5.3
		VC1	5.0	33.7	8.3	47.0	0.8	0.6	0.6	2.0
		VC2	5.0	33.7	8.3	47.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.4
		Sum	31.0	207.0	51.0	289.0	5.4	0.9	4.4	10.727
	4B (Success)	NC0	9.5	33.2	5.3	48.0	0.7	0.3	0.1	1.0
		NC1	10.5	36.6	5.9	53.0	1.2	0.4	0.0	1.5
		NC2	9.3	32.5	5.2	47.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.3
		VC0	9.1	31.8	5.1	46.0	0.1	0.1	1.6	1.9
		VC1	9.1	31.8	5.1	46.0	1.1	1.2	1.9	4.2
		VC2	9.5	33.2	5.3	48.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5
		Sum	57.0	199.0	32.0	288.0	3.2	2.1	4.1	9.381

Table B.5. The AS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E: Expected frequencies and deviances

	Test	Expected frequencies				Relative discrepancies					
		v.often	sometimes	never	sum	v.often	sometimes + never	sum	v.often	sometimes + never	sum
5E	NCA	61.1	20.0	*1.8*	83.0	61.1	21.9	83.0	0.06	0.16	0.22
	NCM	61.9	20.3	*1.8*	84.0	61.9	22.1	84.0	0.56	1.56	2.11
	NC0	60.4	19.8	*1.8*	82.0	60.4	21.6	82.0	0.04	0.12	0.16
	VCA	61.1	20.0	*1.8*	83.0	61.1	21.9	83.0	0.39	1.08	1.47
	VCM	61.1	20.0	*1.8*	83.0	61.1	21.9	83.0	0.07	0.21	0.28
	VC0	63.3	20.8	*1.9*	86.0	63.3	22.7	86.0	0.00	0.01	0.01
	sum	369.0	121.0	11.0	501.0	369.0	132.0	501.0	1.12	3.13	4.252
6E	NCA	60.4	21.3	*0.3*	82.0	60.4	21.6	82.0	0.00	0.01	0.01
	NCM	61.1	21.6	*0.3*	83.0	61.1	21.9	83.0	0.06	0.16	0.22
	NC0	58.9	20.8	*0.3*	80.0	58.9	21.1	80.0	0.41	1.14	1.54
	VCA	58.9	20.8	*0.3*	80.0	58.9	21.1	80.0	0.01	0.04	0.05
	VCM	58.9	20.8	*0.3*	80.0	58.9	21.1	80.0	0.86	2.39	3.25
	VC0	61.8	21.8	*0.3*	84.0	61.8	22.2	84.0	0.13	0.36	0.49
	sum	360.0	127.0	2.0	489.0	360.0	129.0	489.0	1.47	4.10	5.569

Table B.6. The IS' responses to questionnaire points 5E and 6E: Expected frequencies and deviances

	Test	Expected frequencies				Relative discrepancies			
		v.often	sometimes	never	sum	v.often	sometimes	never	sum
5E	NCA	18.7	21.0	12.3	52.0	1.2	0.8	0.0	2.0
	NCM	16.9	19.0	11.1	47.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
	NC0	16.2	18.2	10.6	45.0	1.4	1.5	0.0	2.9
	VCA	16.6	18.6	10.9	46.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.3
	VCM	16.6	18.6	10.9	46.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2
	VC0	14.0	15.7	9.2	39.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.5
	sum	99.0	111.0	65.0	275.0	3.1	2.5	0.4	5.950
6E	NCA	21.7	16.1	6.2	44.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2
	NCM	22.2	16.4	6.3	45.0	0.8	0.8	0.1	1.6
	NC0	20.3	15.0	5.8	41.0	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.5
	VCA	21.7	16.1	6.2	44.0	0.6	1.5	0.2	2.4
	VCM	21.2	16.2	5.5	43.0	0.7	1.7	0.4	2.8
	VC0	15.8	11.2	5.0	32.0	1.7	1.6	0.2	3.5
	sum	123.0	91.0	35.0	249.0	4.1	5.9	0.9	10.931

Table B.7. Familiarity with symbol descriptions in pedagogical dictionaries: expected frequencies and deviances

	Test	Expected frequencies				Relative discrepancies			
		Yes	No	Some	Sum	Yes	No	Some	Sum
AS	NCA	35.6	17.9	30.5	84.0	0.06	0.84	0.20	1.10
	NCM	35.6	17.9	30.5	84.0	0.00	0.46	0.20	0.67
	NC0	34.3	17.2	29.4	81.0	1.30	0.09	1.01	2.39
	VCA	35.2	17.7	30.2	83.0	1.46	0.63	0.49	2.58
	VCM	34.7	17.5	29.8	82.0	1.73	5.22	0.11	7.06
	VC0	35.6	17.9	30.5	84.0	1.15	1.33	0.08	2.56
	Sum	211.0	106.0	181.0	498.0	5.70	8.58	2.08	16.356
IS	NCA	17.2	23.5	12.3	53.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3
	NCM	15.9	21.7	11.4	49.0	2.2	0.2	1.1	3.6
	NC0	14.6	20.0	10.5	45.0	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.9
	VCA	14.9	20.4	10.7	46.0	0.6	1.0	0.2	1.8
	VCM	15.5	21.3	11.2	48.0	1.3	0.0	1.5	2.8
	VC0	13.9	19.1	10.0	43.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.5
	Sum	92.0	126.0	66.0	284.0	4.6	1.8	3.5	9.928

Table B.8. Reference to relevant codes and examples: Proportions (in italics) and mean proportions used in the ANOVAs

Level	Congruence	Test	Mean %		%	
			C	E	*C*	*E*
AS	PL-	NCA	40.6	81.9	*40.9*	*81.1*
		NCM	53.4	79.4	*53.1*	*78.9*
		VCA	63.1	79.9	*63.1*	*79.9*
		VCM	37.8	93.5	*37.9*	*93.4*
	PL+	NCA	47.4	71.8	*47.1*	*71.8*
		NCM	59.5	71.8	*59.3*	*72.2*
		VCA	63.2	81.5	*63.1*	*81.5*
		VCM	37.8	91.2	*37.7*	*91.3*
IS	PL-	NCA	40.3	75.3	*40.8*	*75.0*
		NCM	23.8	82.0	*23.3*	*83.3*
		VCA	42.9	97.2	*39.9*	*97.3*
		VCM	22.3	96.5	*20.3*	*96.9*
	PL+	NCA	30.7	81.4	*30.5*	*81.3*
		NCM	25.0	79.0	*23.2*	*81.1*
		VCA	44.6	91.0	*43.0*	*91.1*
		VCM	17.7	94.8	*16.6*	*94.7*

Kody rzeczownikowe i czasownikowe w angielskich jednojęzycznych słownikach pedagogicznych: Studium użyteczności dla Polaków

Streszczenie

Książka *Noun and verb codes in English monolingual dictionaries for foreign learners: A study of usefulness in the Polish context* poświęcona jest zagadnieniu użyteczności kodów, które stosowane są we współczesnych słownikach pedagogicznych języka angielskiego w celu zwięzłego przedstawienia cech składniowych wyrazów hasłowych. Praca zawężona jest do kodów występujących w hasłach rzeczownikowych i czasownikowych, a ich użyteczność badana jest na przykładzie Polaków korzystających z jednojęzycznych słowników angielskiego.

Monografia realizuje dwa cele badawcze. Pierwsza część książki ukazuje ewolucję systemów kodowania informacji składniowej dla wybranych części mowy w monolingwalnych słownikach angielskiego dla nierodzimych użytkowników. Celem drugiej części pracy jest zbadanie, czy i jakie kody w hasłach rzeczownikowych i czasownikowych są przydatne dla Polaków uczących się języka angielskiego.

Rozprawa ma charakter metaleksykograficzno-empiryczny. Zasadniczą częścią rozważań metaleksykograficznych jest rys historyczny użycia kodów w słownikach pedagogicznych języka angielskiego oraz przegląd form kodów w hasłach rzeczownikowych i czasownikowych w wieloletniej tradycji anglojęzycznej leksykografii pedagogicznej. Wnioski o dychotomicznym podziale kodów pod względem formy i częstości występowania w dużej mierze kształtują projekt badania empirycznego, które pozwala zrealizować drugi cel pracy i stanowi sedno jej części empirycznej.

W badaniu empirycznym wykorzystano metodę eksperymentalną oraz metodę kwestionariuszową. Eksperyment składał się z testu, w którym badani mieli przetłumaczyć wybrane elementy polskich zdań na język angielski przy wykorzystaniu podanych angielskich słów, dla których na potrzeby pracy skonstruowano hasła słownikowe. W eksperymencie wyodrębniono następujące zmienne niezależne: obecność kodów i ich formę,

część mowy, poziom zaawansowania respondentów oraz stopień zgodności składni polskiej ze składnią angielską. Zmienne zależne to poprawność tłumaczeń i częstotliwość odwołań do kodów oraz przykładów przy udzielaniu poprawnych odpowiedzi. Uwzględnienie przykładów wynika z charakteru mikrostruktury słowników pedagogicznych języka angielskiego, w której są one z reguły obecne. Ponadto, przykłady stanowią płaszczyznę porównania dla użyteczności kodów. Metoda kwestionariuszowa służyła natomiast zebraniu informacji na temat respondentów. Badanie przeprowadzono na dwóch reprezentatywnych próbach Polaków uczących się języka angielskiego na poziome zaawansowanym oraz średnio zaawansowanym.

W pracy podejmuje się próbę odpowiedzi na pytanie, czy kody składniowe dla rzeczowników i czasowników są obecnie nadal potrzebne w słownikach języka angielskiego, a jeśli tak, jak powinny one wyglądać, czy powinny mieć taki sam charakter dla obu wymienionych części mowy oraz czy ich forma powinna być uzależniona od poziomu zaawansowania docelowej grupy użytkowników. Ponadto bada się, czy składnia języka rodzimego rzutuje w znaczący sposób na proces ekstrakcji informacji składniowej ze słowników. Sformułowane wnioski pozwalają ustosunkować się do przedstawianej w literaturze przedmiotu koncepcji odejścia od międzynarodowego charakteru słowników pedagogicznych języka angielskiego, które są przeznaczone dla globalnego odbiorcy, na rzecz słowników przystosowanych do potrzeb użytkowników różnych języków rodzimych.

Praca nie ogranicza się do weryfikacji postawionych hipotez. Wykorzystując układ badawczy eksperymentu, zmierza także do odkrycia zależności, które nie zostały wcześniej przewidziane ze względu na brak podobnych badań.

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